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Effective school leadership and head teachers? professional learning in Zanzibar secondary schools : a mixed-method exploratory study of the perceptions of key education stakeholders

Effective school leadership and head-teachers' professional learning in Zanzibar secondary schools: A mixed-method exploratory study of the perceptions of key education stakeholders

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to provide an understanding of effective school leadership, the associated competencies and the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers from the perspective of a low income country, namely Zanzibar. The overall approach adopted is one of conceptual pluralism. In particular, the study makes use of Sergiovanni's five leadership forces (technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural), and competence/competency-based models of leadership training and development as a conceptual basis.

The study employs a mixed-methods sequential exploratory strategy to understand the perceptions of Zanzibar key education stakeholders (selected samples of senior education officials, head-teachers, teachers, parents and students) on the meaning of effective school leadership and of the competencies that head-teachers need in order to demonstrate effective school leadership. Consequently a nominal group technique (NGT) was used to capture the stakeholder groups' perceptions. The findings were then used to construct a self-completion questionnaire that was used to validate/generalise the findings to larger populations of senior education officials (policy makers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners).

The results show that the key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including the majority of senior education officials (policy makers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) associate effective school leadership and related competencies mostly with the first three of Sergiovanni's leadership forces, namely, technical, human and educational. With respect to training priorities, they seem to prefer competencies that are associated mostly with technical and educational leadership.

The results seem to suggest that Zanzibar key education stakeholders associate effective school leadership mostly with 'management'. 'Leadership' seems not to have received much attention. It is argued however that both leadership and management are necessary for effective school leadership and must therefore be given equal emphasis when designing and implementing leadership training and development programmes for school leaders. Several suggestions are put forward to improve policy, practice and theory.

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original, except where indicated by special reference in the text, and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any other academic award.

Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University of Bristol.

The dissertation has not been presented to any other university for examination either in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Signed:

Date: 24 September 2007

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my children.

Let this work inspire you and make you realise that it is only through education, hard work, honesty and love for everyone that you will be able to enjoy living in this competitive world.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This research aims to provide an understanding of effective school leadership from a Zanzibarian perspective and on how it can be developed and improved through school leadership preparation, particularly through training and development programmes for secondary school head-teachers. The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the study. It starts in **1.1** with the discussion of the motivation and rationale for the study followed in **1.2** by the presentation of the context of the study. The aims and objectives of the study are presented in **1.3** followed in **1.4** by the presentation of the research questions posed in this investigation. Sections **1.5** and **1.6** highlight the conceptual and methodological framework for the study followed in **1.7** by the discussion on the significance of the study. The chapter outlines the structure of this dissertation in **1.8** and ends in **1.9** with a summary of the major issues covered in the chapter.

1.1 Motivation and rationale for the study

The researcher's motivation and rationale for this study came from at least three sources: (1) research evidence and beliefs linking school improvements with effective school leadership; (2) the new education policy initiatives; (3) the need for a conceptualisation of effective school leadership based on and relevant to the Zanzibar context; and, (4) personal experience. These are explained below.

1.1.1 Research evidence linking school improvements with effective school leadership particularly from head-teachers

A full review of literature on effective school leadership is given in section **2.1**. The aim here is to outline some key findings from the literature that serve as a rationale for the study. The idea behind this research evolved as a result of an awareness on the part of the author of the research evidence from school effectiveness and school improvement research that effective school leadership plays a key role in bringing about school improvement and raising education standards (Sammons *et al.* 1997; Leithwood and Jantzi 2000; West *et al.* 2000; Wallace 2002; Bush 2003) and that the leadership role played by the head-teacher has a significant impact on all processes related to school effectiveness and school improvement (Sergiovanni 1991; Hargreaves and Fullan 1998; Day *et al.* 1998; Fullan 2001). According to Bush (2003: 17) "effective leadership and management are essential if schools and colleges are to achieve the wide ranging objectives set for them by their many stakeholders, notably the governments which provide most of the funding for public education institutions". Hill (1989: 56) acknowledges that "the quality of leadership by the head is the single most important factor in determining the effectiveness of the school". According to Sergiovanni (1991) one cannot find a successful school without an effective principal. In supporting this view, De Grauwe (2000: 1) writes:

> Much research has demonstrated that the quality of education depends primarily on the way schools are managed, more than on the abundance of resources, and the capacity of schools to improve teaching and learning is strongly influenced by the quality of leadership provided by the head-teacher.

Furthermore, there is a widespread belief and understanding that leaders are not born but rather are born to be made (MacBeath 1998) and that the "preparation for school leadership is increasingly regarded as a vital component of school improvement" (Bush and Jackson 2002: 426). Similarly Bush and Oduro (2006: 359) acknowledge

that "management development is essential if schools are to have the high quality leadership that their learners, educators and communities deserve".

It was against the background of this convincing research evidence that many countries in the industrialised world decided to implement specialised leadership training and development programmes for practicing school leaders and those aspiring to become school leaders in the future (Harris 2003). The establishment of the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) in England in 2000 is a clear case in point (Bush 2005). Similar examples exist in many other industrialised countries including the USA, Canada and Australia. In these countries, relevant professional training in educational leadership is a *sine qua non* of effective leadership in schools and very rigorous recruitment and selection standards and procedures are in place to ensure that those aspiring to become educational leaders possess the desired competencies (professional knowledge, skills and values) for effective school leadership.

The situation is however very different in many low income countries, particularly in Africa, where in many cases prior professional training in educational leadership is not a condition for taking up a leadership role in schools. In general, appointment of head-teachers is based upon long teaching experience and good classroom performance (Bush and Oduro 2006). Because of the ever changing and increasing roles of head-teachers in contemporary times, teachers' seniority and good classroom practice no longer provide a sufficient basis for challenging the complexities of school leadership. It is therefore not surprising to see some writers citing ineffective school leadership being amongst the factors associated with the poor quality of

education observed in many developing countries particularly in Africa (Lockheed *et al.* 1991; Harber and Davies 1997). This situation cannot be allowed to continue particularly at this time when many low income countries are coming close to achieving universal primary education and expanding equitable access to good quality secondary education has become a priority for many national governments and international organisations. According to the World Bank (2005) the major challenges facing national governments in low income countries today is expanding equitable access to secondary education and at the same time ensuring the delivery of good quality and relevant secondary education. For the low income countries to meet these challenges, they need to undertake major reforms in their education systems. Among the major reforms advocated by many national governments, development partners and international funding agencies is the decentralisation of educational governance with an emphasis on devolving more power and authority and increasing autonomy to grass root levels particularly local communities and the schools (World Bank 2005). This is because of the fact that a school is regarded as a unit of change and the success of any major educational reform/change will depend upon the extent to which it is perceived and implemented at the school level. In other words, the emphasis now is on education systems of low income countries to adopt school-based leadership which is accountable to stakeholders including central and local governments as well as local communities and parents. Thus the role of the principal/head-teacher in facilitating the change process cannot be overemphasised. "As more decision-making power and responsibilities move down to schools, the figure of the principal comes to centre stage" (World Bank 2005: 197); and principals/head-teachers under the envisaged school-based leadership inevitably will have to change and adapt to new roles as shown in Table1.1.

Table 1.1: Changing roles of school principals/head-teachers

Traditional roles	New roles
Maintaining administrative control	Problem solving, crisis management, and decision making
Ordering supplies	Physical facilities management
Ensuring teacher supply and assignments	Instructional leadership
Performing bureaucratic routines	Performance accountability
Basic record keeping	Resource management and generation
Maintaining communications between school and Ministry	Management of communications with higher levels and surrounding communities

Source: (World Bank, 2005)

1.1.2 New education policy initiatives

In February 2006, the Zanzibar Government through the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) declared a new education policy (MoEVT 2006) which among other things advocates for universal lower secondary education and decentralisation of educational governance. These policy decisions resonate with the international call for expanding equitable access to relevant and good quality secondary education and devolution of power and authority to grass root levels particularly schools and local communities (World Bank 2005). Under decentralisation the autonomy of schools is expected to increase, and as illustrated in Table 1.1, the role of head-teachers will change dramatically. Furthermore, the implementation of universal secondary education policy implies tremendous expansion and increase in numbers of secondary schools and consequently the demand for more head-teachers will inevitably increase. In the absence of a pool of already trained educational leaders, secondary schools will continue to be led by teachers with no training in educational leadership, which is not a healthy situation for improving the quality of education and raising education standards. Over time it has become clear that there is an urgent need to establish training and development programmes for secondary school head-teachers. Therefore, any research that aims at understanding the continuing professional development (CPD) needs of secondary

school head-teachers is a move in the right direction. It was against this backdrop that this study has been undertaken.

1.1.3 Need for local conceptualisation of effective school leadership

Despite the international acknowledgement and recognition of the role of effective school leadership in bringing about school improvements and raising education standards "a singular, overarching theory of leadership has proved to be elusive" (Harris and Day 2003: 89). Consequently, "there is still too little evidence about what constitutes successful school leadership" (Bush 2005b: 126) and therefore "much less is known about what forms of leadership development produce enhanced leadership that leads to school improvement" (Bush and Glover 2004: 6). Thus, there is a lack of consensus around effective school leadership practices and on the nature of professional leadership training and development programmes for school leaders. Furthermore, most of the existing research on effective school leadership is from the industrialised countries of the West and therefore the conceptual meanings attached to effective school leadership, the competencies required in exercising effective school leadership, and the professional leadership training and development programmes designed to support effective school leadership are based upon western traditions and values. For a very long time the western leadership theories, frameworks and practices have assumed universal application, but now their universality is seriously questioned (Harber and Davies 1997; Oplatka 2004). Critics argue that "context matters" (Foskett and Lumby 2003) and stress that the conceptualisation of leadership should be based on the contextual conditions (social, economic, cultural, political) of a country where it is exercised (Fertig 2000; Simkins *et al.* 2003; Dimmock and Walker 2005; Crossley and Watson 2003). Thus, depending upon the prevailing

contextual conditions, countries may understand the concept of effective school leadership differently and the corresponding roles to be played by head-teachers may be different from one context to another. Consequently, the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership and the nature of leadership training and development programmes for school leaders may be different from one education system to another. The need to have a local conceptualisation of what constitutes effective school leadership and locally developed educational/school leadership training and development programmes cannot therefore be overemphasised. This view is also supported by Fertig (2000) who stresses that " school effectiveness research in developing countries needs to move towards a more contextual model, one which takes account of ... the socio-economic, political and cultural contexts in which the organisation operates, and perspectives which different stakeholder groups bring to bear on the activities of the school" (p. 395). The implication for carrying out educational research in low income countries is the need for researchers to have flexible paradigmatic positions since very strict adherence to a single paradigm may not enable them to capture the contextual conditions through which education systems operate. The issues of paradigmatic choices are explored further in **3.1.**

1.1.4 Personal experience

As the Chief Executive of the Ministry responsible for education (currently called Ministry of Education and Vocational Training – MoEVT) in Zanzibar for over 17 years, effective school leadership has been my greatest challenge. Therefore, I was disturbed by the frequency of inspectors' reports and public opinion that associated the observed undesirable performance in many schools with ineffective school

leadership. This state of affairs was shocking particularly when bearing in mind that the school leaders including head-teachers were appointed as a result of their hard work and commitment in their previous job. How is it that they become ineffective when assuming leadership positions? This situation reminded me of the long-standing complaint by head-teachers that they are accused of being ineffective without bearing in mind that they did not have any professional training in school management and leadership. Because of such complaints, the Ministry (MoEVT) was convinced that a formal training programme for head-teachers was long over due and decided to establish a two year diploma course in educational management at the Nkrumah Teachers Training College in 1995. The course was designed for primary school head-teachers and a new cohort of about 40 trainees were recruited from practising head-teachers and deputy head-teachers after every two years. However, after only five cohorts of graduates, the Ministry decided to suspend the diploma programme in educational management in 2005 pending further investigations because it was not satisfied with the performance of the majority of the graduates when they resumed their leadership positions in schools.

While causes for the perceived ineffective school leadership of the graduates are still not fully clear, I suspected that probably there was a mismatch between what was taught in the educational management programme and what the head-teachers were experiencing in actual practice in schools. Therefore I carried out a little investigation to compare the content of the educational management curricula and what went on in actual practice in schools. I found that many practical problems that our schools were experiencing were either not covered or were taught according to what "foreign textbooks" have said without referring to local case studies. For example, most

schools in Zanzibar are overcrowded with an average class size of more than 60 students -- head-teachers need to be familiar with special teaching strategies that will ensure children benefit from such learning environments; a significant number of teachers are either unqualified or under-qualified – head-teachers need to understand staff development strategies to support such types of teachers; there is a general lack of teaching/learning materials – head-teachers need to understand various improvisation strategies to encourage teachers to utilise locally available materials; poverty is prevailing in most families and motivation to attend schools for some students is low – head-teachers need special strategies to guide, counsel and motivate such students; and in some areas the awareness of the communities on the importance of education is low – head-teachers need special strategies to change the mindsets of people in such communities. To what extent did the head-teachers' training programme reflect these realities? I was convinced that it did not, and one of the major causes could be due to the fact that no comprehensive and elaborative training needs analysis had been carried out and as a result the content of the course was either adopted or adapted from "somewhere" and therefore did not reflect the real situation experienced by the head-teachers in the schools. Despite these shortcomings, MoEVT is still convinced that school leadership training and development is vital for school improvement and wishes to institutionalise professional development programmes not only for school leaders but also for all other educational leaders including regional and district education officers, inspectors, advisors and heads of various units and divisions. However, in order to avoid past mistakes, there is a need to carry out research that will contribute to the better understanding of the professional learning needs of the various groups. This research is one attempt to fulfil such a need.

Furthermore as already discussed above, despite the many leadership theories, there is no agreement in the literature on the meaning of effective school leadership and what constitutes effective leadership practices. In Zanzibar, this lack of agreement has sometimes been a source and cause of tension and misunderstanding between policymakers, practitioners, and other stakeholders particularly parents. For example, I have witnessed cases where MoEVT's management decided to demote, remove or change head-teachers because of poor academic performance of their schools, and community leaders came forward to protest against MoEVT's decision and defend the head-teachers of those schools. Similarly, there were instances where the communities have perceived their schools to be lacking effective leadership but MoEVT's management perceived them differently. I have also come across cases where teachers perceived their head-teachers to be ineffective but students perceived them to be otherwise and vice versa. These examples show that key education stakeholders in Zanzibar have different perspectives on the meaning of effective school leadership. Because education is always politically contested, there is an urgent need for policymakers and practitioners to understand those perspectives so that the educational interests of various groups are taken on board when formulating and implementing educational policies including those related to school leadership training and development. This research makes a significant contribution towards the realisation of this need.

1.2 The context of the study

This study took place in Zanzibar. It is a low income country comprising two main islands Unguja and Pemba. According to the 2002 population census, it had a population of about 981,754 growing at about 3.1% per annum. It is part of the

United Republic of Tanzania, but retains considerable autonomy over all non-union matters including education (except higher education). Consequently, Zanzibar has its own government, officially called the Zanzibar Revolutionary Government (ZRG), parliament (the Zanzibar House of Representatives) and the judiciary.

Up to the end of 2006, Zanzibar had a 7-3-2-2-3+ education structure (seven years of primary, three years of first cycle lower secondary, two years of second cycle lower secondary, two years of advanced secondary, and three years or more of higher education) serving a student population of about 306,800. The first ten years comprised the universal basic education cycle which is supposed to be compulsory. The educational governance structure is highly centralised and therefore most educational and human resources management functions including curriculum development, teacher training, employment and deployment, staff appraisal and development, and compensation are carried out centrally. Consequently, the appointment of school leaders including head-teachers and their deputies is undertaken by central authorities. However, like many other low income countries, systematic procedures for the recruitment, selection, training and development of educational leaders are lacking and the appointment of school leaders is based mainly upon seniority and/or good classroom performance. Thus, most schools particularly at secondary level are led by head-teachers who have never received any professional training in educational leadership.

According to the Education Sector Country Status Report, (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports 2003) the quality of education provided is unsatisfactory. In order to improve the quality of education at all levels the Zanzibar Government declared a

new education policy in February 2006 (see **1.1.2**) Under the new education policy, compulsory basic education would be extended to twelve years (two years of preschool education, six years of primary education and four years of lower secondary education). Consequently, the current structure of the education system is being phased out to pave the way for a new 2-6-4-2-3+ (two years of pre-school, six years of primary, four years of lower secondary and three years or more of higher education) structure. A detailed account of the Zanzibar socioeconomic, cultural and educational context is attached in Appendix 1.1.

1.3 Research aims and objectives

The central aim of this study is to provide an understanding of effective school leadership as perceived by key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including policymakers (MoEVT's senior education officials), practitioners (secondary school head-teachers), teachers, students and parents, and its implications for the roles and professional training and development of secondary school head-teachers.

In order to realise this aim, the study attempted to achieve the following research objectives:

i. Present a critical review of relevant literature on effective school leadership and professional development of school leaders.

ii. Describe the stakeholders' understandings of the meaning of effective school leadership.

iii. Describe stakeholders' perceptions of the actions that secondary school head-teachers should take to demonstrate effective school leadership.

iv. Describe stakeholders' perceptions of the competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to enable them exercise effective school leadership.

v. Describe the perceptions of policymakers (MoEVT's senior officials) and practitioners (secondary school head-teachers) concerning the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers.

vi. Provide a preliminary analysis of the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar.

1.4 Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions (RQs):

RQ 1:

What do key education stakeholders including secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, parents, students and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) understand by the concept of "effective school leadership"?

RQ 2:

What do these stakeholders think secondary school head-teachers should do in order to demonstrate effective school leadership?

RQ 3:

What do these stakeholders think are the key competencies required by secondary school head-teachers to enable them to exercise effective school leadership?

RQ 4:

What do secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as the most important characteristics/features of effective school leadership?

RQ: 5:

What actions do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?

RQ 6:

What competencies do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?

RQ 7:

What are the perceptions of the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) concerning the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers?

1.5 Conceptual framework for the study

This study draws its conceptual framework from three bodies of literature, namely, leadership literature, continuing professional development (CPD) literature and competency model literature. These are reviewed in depth in Chapter 2. It became clear from the review of the leadership literature that despite the existence of many theories of leadership, none of them is exhaustive and sufficient enough to explain or to provide an adequate account of effective leadership in educational organisations (Bush: 2003). Therefore, I concur with Bolman and Deal's (1991) notion of *"conceptual pluralism"* where they urge that effective leadership in organisations requires the use of different leadership frames and effective leaders are those who are conversant and able to use appropriately the different leadership frames/lenses in different situations and under different conditions. Consequently, Sergiovanni's (1991) typology of leadership was used to conceptualise some aspects of this study.

In the determination of professional learning needs, this study was informed by the competency model literature where professional learning need is seen to exist "when there is a gap between the requirements of the job and the current capabilities of the incumbent" (Marchington and Wilkinson 2005: 243) and is normally driven by organisational demands requiring employees to master a certain set of competencies; and CPD literature where professional learning is seen as a process of life long learning whereby individuals are supposed to be responsible for their own learning.

This doctoral research also draws from the general agreement found in the literature that effective professional development is seen to strike a fine balance between system, organisational and individual needs (Dempster 2000; Blandford 2000; Bolam 1986; Craft 1996). That is why both secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and senior education officials (policymakers) took part in the survey research (see

3.4) in order to ensure that the emerging professional learning needs of the head-teachers reflect system, organisational, as well as individual demands.

1.6 Methodological framework

In this study, the researcher adopted pragmatism as his philosophical or paradigmatic stance. This stance was taken because the research questions posed in this study could best be answered by using a mixed-methods research strategy and this is feasible through pragmatism. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), pragmatic researchers believe in the "dictatorship of the research question" whereby "pragmatic researchers consider the research question to be more important than either the method they use or the paradigm that underlies the method" (p. 21). Consequently, the study employed group interviews using a nominal group technique (NGT) to collect qualitative data and the questionnaire survey to collect quantitative data. The methodological framework including the assumptions behind the choice of philosophical/paradigmatic position, methodology and methods of data collection and analysis techniques are presented in detail in Chapter 3.

1.7 Significance of the study

It is anticipated that this research will make contributions to theory, practice and methodology as follows:

i. No research on school leadership has been undertaken in Zanzibar. This research develops insights into aspects of school leadership that need the attention of policymakers and raises issues that may warrant further investigation. Furthermore, most of the existing literature on effective

school leadership comes from industrialised countries of the West and is based mainly upon the experiences and accounts of head-teachers themselves. Not much attention has been given to what those around them say about effective school leadership. In particular, the views of parents, teachers and students on what they think of effective school leadership have not received much attention. This study was carried out in a low income country and it therefore adds to the understandings of the meaning of effective school leadership from a different, i.e. non-western perspective.

ii. Leadership training for those who aspire to become secondary school head-teachers has been lacking for a very long time and as a consequence almost all public secondary schools are under the leadership of head-teachers who were never trained for the job. The situation is further exacerbated by the dearth of CPD opportunities for the practicing secondary school head-teachers. It is hoped that the findings from this study can be used as a basis for preparing leadership training and development programmes for secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar.

iii. The findings from the study relating to what head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership may contribute to practice as they could provide a basis for developing job descriptions and standards of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar.

iv. At a theoretical level, this study will demonstrate how a model derived from Sergiovanni's typology of leadership could be used to conceptualise effective school leadership and carry out training and development needs analysis of school leaders in different socio-economic and cultural contexts.

1.8 Organisation of the dissertation

This dissertation is presented in six chapters. Chapter 1 describes the background and overview of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on leadership, particularly effective school leadership and professional development especially on training and development programmes of head-teachers, which ultimately lead to the discussion of the conceptual framework for the study. Chapter 3 discusses the methodological framework of the study including the researcher's philosophical stance, the research strategy, the methods of data collection, the techniques of data analysis, and the ethical issues that confronted the study. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. Chapter 5 presents the discussion of the findings and finally Chapter 6 provides the overall summary of the study, the conclusions drawn from the findings, the implications of the study, and the recommendations including suggestions for further investigation.

1.9 Summary

This chapter has provided the overview of the study. In addition to the discussion of the motivation and rationale for the study, it has also described the context to the study. The aims and objectives of the study, the research questions that guided data

gathering process were presented along with the conceptual and methodological frameworks used in the study. The significance of the study was also discussed. The following chapter presents the literature review that informed the study and the conceptual framework that guided the formulation of the research questions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature. The aims of the chapter are to develop insights into the research problem and the research questions posed in the previous chapter and to set out a theoretical framework for the study. In **2.1** the chapter discusses the concept of leadership by examining the definition(s) and theories of leadership and their implications for the roles of school leaders particularly head-teachers in exercising effective school leadership. In **2.2** it examines the concept of professional development and its implications for leadership training and development of head-teachers followed in **2.3** by the discussion of the limitations of the reviewed literature. Section **2.4** discusses the conceptual framework that guided the study. Finally, section **2.5** provides a summary of the major issues covered in the chapter.

2.1 The concept of leadership

2.1.1 Definition of leadership

Despite its popularity and importance in contemporary human and organisational affairs, the term "leadership" still lacks precise definition (Bryman 1999; Bennis and Nanus 1985). Bass (1981: 7) acknowledged that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept". For example, Stogdill (1974) defines leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal-setting and goal

achievement. Burns (1978: 18) stresses that "leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of the followers". Sergiovanni (1987: 2) sees leadership as "the process of persuasion by which a leader or leadership group (such as the state) induces followers to act in a manner that enhances the leader's purposes or shared purposes". According to Bush and Glover (2003: 8), "leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes". Yukl (1989: 252) provides a more comprehensive definition of leadership:

> Leadership is defined broadly as influencing task objectives and strategies, influencing commitment and compliance in task behaviour to achieve these objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of organisation.

Inherent in all these definitions of leadership are three elements. First, leadership is a *process* and for it to take place there must an individual or group of individuals who are called leader(s) and follower(s). In other words leadership can be exercised by individuals or collectively by a group of individuals (teams) over other individuals or groups; secondly, leadership involves influencing others and in doing so leaders direct actions and the followers change their behaviours towards accomplishment of desired objectives; and thirdly, by influencing others to achieve desired objectives, leadership implies goal-setting. From these definitions of leadership one can conclude that the core leadership functions include setting goals and objectives, and directing actions of others to ensure achievement of the desired goals and objectives. In directing the action of others, leaders use power. Several types/sources of power are recognised in the literature such as reward power, coercive power, expert power, legitimate power and referent power (Owens 2001). The implications for effective school leadership are that school leaders must set goals and use one or more sources

of power to direct the actions of their followers (staff and students) to achieve the desired goals; and successful implementation of the goals depends very much on the nature of the goals, and on the extent to which school leaders use power appropriately not only in setting the goals, but also in directing the actions of staff and students towards the achievement of these goals.

2.1.2 Leadership and management

In addition to *leadership* lacking precise definition, there is also an ongoing debate on the distinction between *leadership* and *management*. Some writers believe that there are differences between *leadership* and *management* and the two terms are mutually exclusive. For example, Bennis and Nanus (1985) stress that managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. According to Fullan (1991: 157) *leadership* "relates to mission, direction, inspiration"; and *management* "involves designing and carrying out plans, getting things done, working effectively with people" (p. 158). Similar views are shared by Davies (2005: 2) who insists that *leadership* "is about direction-setting and inspiring others to make the journey to a new and improved state of a school" and *management* "is concerned with efficiently operating in the current state of circumstance and planning in the shorter term for the school". This view echoes Leithwood's (2006) contention that *management* is about maintaining stability while *leadership* implies bringing about improvement in the organisation. Early and Weindling (2004: 5) contend that "leadership tends to be more formative, proactive and problem solving, dealing with such things as values, vision and mission, where as the concerns of management are more to do with the execution, planning, organising and deploying resources, or

'making things happen'". West-Burnham (1997a) summarises nicely the distinction between leadership and management as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Differences between leadership and management

Leadership	Management
• Vision • Strategic issues • Transformation • Ends • People • Doing the right things	• Implementation • Operational issues • Transaction • Means • Systems • Doing things right

Bolman and Deal (1991) admit that leadership and management are distinct but warn that both are equally important:

> Organisations, which are over managed but under led eventually, lose sense of spirit or purpose. Poorly managed organisations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporary only to crash shortly thereafter. The challenge of modern organisations requires the objective perspective of the manager as well as the brilliant flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides (pp. xiii – xiv).

For other writers such as Bell and Bush (2002: 3), leadership is seen as an aspect of management:

> Both these terms imply an emphasis on vision, mission and purpose coupled with a capacity to inspire others to work towards the achievement of these aims. Operational management, in relation to budgeting, staff issues, teaching and learning and relationship with parents and community, are then linked to these strategic aims... The dichotomy is false because effective schools require good leadership *and* good management

The same view is shared by Everard *et al.* (2004) who regard leadership as an indispensable part of management, and Imants and de Jong's (1999) concept of integral school leadership which considers management and leadership tasks to be complementary. Law and Glover (2000) concur that the distinctions between *leadership* and *management* are not clearly defined but insist that the two need different but overlapping skills, knowledge and abilities.

It is evident from the discussion above that *leadership* is seen to be linked with vision and *management* is seen to be linked with the daily operations that are deemed necessary for the implementation of the vision. Furthermore, it becomes clear that the distinctions between *leadership* and *management* are quite arbitrary as in actual organisational settings the two functions overlap significantly and are usually carried out by the same people. The implications for effective school leadership are that school leaders inevitably have to be competent in both leadership and management and therefore both must be accorded equal prominence in leadership training and development programmes of school leaders. However, the big challenge facing head-teachers particularly in low income countries including Zanzibar is how they can perform the two functions effectively under the highly centralised education systems through which power and authority, and resources are under the jurisdictions of central authorities. In many cases, head-teachers spend significant part of their time outside the school dealing with the demands of central bureaucracy such as attending meetings and following up issues at central, regional or district headquarters; and when in school they are occupied more with daily operational issues such as handling disciplinary problems of teachers and students; mobilising funds from parents to get resources for building new or renovating already dilapidated buildings or to get basic teaching/learning materials. They hardly have time to spend in more strategic issues that are necessary for improving teaching and learning such as articulating shared visions and formulating strategic plans of their schools. The situation is made worse because of the fact that in many low income countries including Zanzibar schools have no budgets of their own that they can use for implementation of their envisaged plans. Under these circumstances, the ability of head-teachers to exercise effective *'leadership'* and *'management'* is highly compromised (also see **2.1.5** and **5.3.2**).

2.1.3 Leadership, vision and values

The literature indicates that the concepts of leadership, vision and values are closely linked. For example, Foreman (1998: 18) contends that "vision is the distinguishing feature of the leadership role". The close link between leadership, vision and values is also acknowledged by Bush and Glover (2003: 8) when they stress that:

> Successful leaders develop a vision of their schools based on personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the schools are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.

The above remarks from Bush and Glover concur with Hallinger and Heck (2003) who contend that the foundation of vision is moral or spiritual in nature and therefore is embedded within leaders' values and beliefs systems. According to Tomlinson (2004) values are springs of human action, enduring beliefs which when internalised become standards or criteria for guiding school leaders' actions and thoughts for influencing the actions and thoughts of others, and for morally judging themselves and others. Thus the values of a leader play a key role in developing and articulating a shared vision. It is also clear from these remarks that it is assumed that school leaders are autonomous and therefore have full authority to develop and articulate their visions. This assumption raises a question about the extent to which the school leaders' personal values and the resultant visions become useful in centralised education systems such as Zanzibar where they are expected to operate and align their school plans in accordance with centrally developed policies, plans, objectives and targets.

2.1.4 Leadership and culture

Walker and Dimmock (2002: 16) define culture as "the enduring sets of beliefs, values, and ideologies underpinning structures, processes, and practices that distinguish one group of people to another". They refer to societal culture when the group of people is at national level and organisational culture when the concerned group of people is at organisational level such as a school. Many definitions of leadership incorporate explicitly or implicitly the notion of organisational culture. For example Yukl's definition of leadership above includes "influencing the culture of the organisation". Walker and Dimmock's definition of culture and Yukl's definition of leadership imply that inculcating appropriate norms and values as well as putting up structures and processes that facilitate successful implementation of desired goals and objectives are the key to effective leadership. Schein (1985: 2) elaborates further the link between leadership and organisational culture:

> Organisational cultures are created by leaders, and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management, and if and when it becomes necessary, the destruction of culture. Culture and leadership, when one examines them closely, are two sides of the same coin, and neither can be really understood by itself. In fact, there is a possibility underdeveloped in leadership research that the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture and that the unique talent of leaders is their ability to work with culture.

In addition to organisational culture societal culture also has impact on what goes on at organisational level such as school. This is due to the fact that organisational culture normally reflects the societal culture. For example, referring to a situation in Ghana Oduro (2003: 203) (cited in Bush and Oduro 2006) reports that school leadership in Ghanaian schools is influenced by "Ghanaian cultural orientation towards the exercise of authority and power, the value for old age and language". Similarly, gender becomes an important leadership issue in societies where equal opportunities between men and women are not recognised; also leadership may be viewed differently in high power distance cultures or in cultures that embrace

individualism in contrast to collectivism. For example, in Zanzibar the "collectivism" culture is both a blessing and liability to school leadership. It is a blessing because it has a potential to facilitate cooperative spirit and team work in schools. However, it becomes a huge liability to school leadership because it contributes significantly to staff absenteeism as everyday there are staff who do not attend school in order to join and support friends or neighbours, for example, during bereavement or wedding ceremonies. The implication for effective school leadership is that school leaders must be able to build a culture which is conducive towards the achievement of desired goals, and in order to be able to do so they must be aware of the societal culture. Similarly, leadership training and development programmes of school leaders need to emphasise the importance of both organisational and societal culture in fostering effective school leadership.

2.1.5 Theories of leadership and their implications for effective school leadership and leadership training and development

The undisputable role of leadership in improving organisational performance has created a lot of interest amongst scholars and researchers in coming up with leadership theories and models that could lead to best practices of effective leadership. Consequently many theories and models are found in the literature. Burns (1978) came up with a model of leadership that grouped several leadership theories and models into two types, namely, transactional and transformational leadership approaches. The transactional approaches included most of the earlier theories of leadership, namely, the trait approach, the style approach, and the contingency/situational approach.

The trait approach (Stogdill 1974) sees leadership as an attribute of personality and focuses on personal qualities and characteristics of effective leaders in order to find out what differentiates them from less effective leaders. Inherent in the trait approach was the belief that leaders were born rather than made. Although research revealed several common traits such as strong desire to lead and exercise power, honesty and integrity, and self-confidence amongst successful leaders (Locke *et al.* 1991), the results were inconsistent. The implication for effective school leadership is that effective school leaders can be selected from among those who are believed to possess the desired qualities.

In contrast to the trait approach, the style approach focuses on the behaviour of leaders (Halpin 1966; Blake and Mouton 1964; McGregor 1960; Tannenbaum and Schmidt 1973). This approach defines leaders' behaviours in two dimensions. The first dimension looks at the behaviours of leaders with respect to the emphasis they put in achieving results or getting the job done (i.e. the leaders are task oriented). The second dimension looks at the behaviour of leaders with respect to the emphasis they put on building friendly relationships and mutual trust between themselves and their followers (i.e. the leaders are people oriented). These two dimensions are referred to as *initiating structure* and *consideration* respectively. The *initiating structure* and *consideration* leadership dimensions correspond to McGregor's (1960) *Theory X* and *Theory Y*, Blake and Mouton's (1964) *concern for task* and *concern for people*, and Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) *boss-centred* and *subordinate-centred* leadership. Effective leaders are those who are equally concerned with both tasks and people. The implication of the style approach for effective school leadership is that it is possible to study the behaviours of leaders and unlike leaders' traits which cannot be

changed, leaders' behaviours are capable of being changed and therefore it is possible to get school leaders with the desired behaviours through appropriate training,

Unlike the trait and style approaches that focus on personal traits and behaviour of leaders respectively, the contingency (situational) approach is concerned more with the contextual/situational factors through which the leader operates (Fiedler 1967; Hersey and Blanchard 1977). According to Fiedler (1967) the main situational variables are position power of the leader, task structure and leader-member relations. Similarly, Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership singles out the 'maturity' level of the followers as a very important factor to be born in my mind by leaders when assigning tasks to their followers. Thus, under the contingency/situational approach, the effectiveness of the leader depends upon the situation and unless the situational variables are known, the organisational outcomes cannot be predicted (Cheng 2002a). Consequently, successful leadership is contingent upon the ability of leaders to study the situation in which they operate and then act appropriately. The implication for effective school leadership is that one has to study the school situation first and then try to look for leaders who can best fit in that particular situation. Accordingly, school leadership training and development programmes must equip the school leaders with appropriate competencies that will enable them to fit in variety of situations.

Cheng (2002a: 52) contends that the trait, style and contingency/situational approaches belong to traditional theories where "leadership is often assumed to occur between a leader and a follower group in a steady situation where a task is given to complete in a relatively short term period" and "often focus on the transactional

process in which a leader gives something to followers in exchange for their satisfactory effort and performance in the task". According to Hoy and Miskel (1996: 393), "transactional leaders recognise what employees want from work and try to provide them with what they want, if their performance warrants it; exchange reward and promises of reward for effort; and respond to employee's immediate self-interests if they can be done by getting the work done." Thus, transactional leadership can be associated with bureaucratic management approach where power and authority are centralised at the top of the organisation and the accomplishment of tasks is contingent upon leaders' ability to give reward or sanctions. According to West *et al.* (2000: 33) "transactional leadership approaches... seem best suited to static school systems and communities".

From the foregoing discussion, the effectiveness of transactional leadership in school situations may be limited. First transactional leadership assumes that schools are static entities; but in reality they are dynamic institutions often with ambiguous and diffused goals. Under these circumstances, school leaders need to transform the situation rather than them adapting to the situation. And secondly, leadership that depends continuously on transactions through rewards has its limitations because it is practically impossible to meet the ever increasing demands of the followers. This is particularly true for situations like the one of Zanzibar where head-teachers are not in position to execute such rewards because resources are controlled and major decisions must be made centrally. However, there are certain situations where transactional leadership becomes necessary particularly in maintaining and keeping the school running. Southworth (1998: 44) writes:

> Transactional leadership matters.... Maintaining the school provides organisational stability. Transactional leadership ensures

> there is a high measure of efficiency and that there is a high level of organisational predictability and continuity.

However, he contends that transactional leadership is necessary but not sufficient for effective school leadership.

The limitations of transactional leadership gave rise to various new leadership approaches that Burns (1978) refers to as transformational leadership. Other approaches associated with transformational leadership include visionary, charismatic, cultural and inspirational leadership (Leithwood and Duke 1999). According to Bass (1985) transformational leadership is made up of four elements: charisma (idealised influence) – developing a vision, engendering pride, respect and trust; inspirational motivation – motivating by creating high expectations, modelling appropriate behaviour, and using symbols to focus efforts; intellectual stimulation – continually challenging followers with new ideas and approaches; and individualised consideration – giving personal attention to followers, giving them respect and responsibility. Underpinning the transformational approach is the ability of the leaders to create new visions and muster commitment to the visions and to inspire followers to transcend their own interests for higher order goals (Hoy and Miskel 1996). Bennis and Nanus (1985) stress that successful leaders are those who are able to articulate and communicate a shared vision, give it form and legitimacy, focus attention on it, and use their strength and commitment to ensure that it is put into practice. Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) view transformational leadership as consisting of three broad categories of leadership practices, namely, setting directions, developing people and redesigning the organisation. Thus transformational leadership can be associated with a participatory management approach where power and authority are decentralised, and accomplishment of tasks is contingent upon leaders'

capacity to create, communicate and gain commitment to the vision, and building a strong organisational culture. In general, empirical evidence supports the use of transformational leadership by head-teachers as it has proved to have both direct and indirect effects to individual and organisational outcomes (Leithwood *et al.* 1999; Marks and Printy 2003; Geijsel *et al.* 2003). However, Southworth (1998) argues that transformational leadership builds upon the foundations of transactional leadership (e.g. maintaining stability and continuity) and therefore it needs to be exercised as part and parcel of transactional leadership.

Despite having success stories, transformational leadership is not without its critics. These criticisms include possibilities of transformational leadership becoming too despotic (Allix 2000), a tool for controlling teachers (Chirichello 1999) and a mechanism for "encouraging manipulation of 'followers' and reinforcing dependence on a dominant echelon of leaders" (Woods 2005: 21). Another criticism is that it is almost impossible to practice transformational leadership effectively when some key educational functions are centrally controlled. Hopkins (2003) argues that transformational leadership is not sufficient enough to bring about school improvement because it lacks a specific orientation towards student learning, and advocates for instructional leadership where attention is given to defining the values and purpose of the school, managing the programme of teaching and curriculum, and establishing the school as a professional learning community. Other writers relate instructional leadership to learning-centred leadership (Southworth 2004) or pedagogical leadership (Sergiovanni 1998). Also critics argue that transformational leadership has created a concept of single heroic leaders (Harris 2003; Sergiovanni 2001) who may "inadvertently do more harm than good because, at best, they provide

episodic improvement followed by frustrated or despondent dependency" (Fullan 2001: 2) and neglect the fact that successful leadership is a product of joint efforts of all members of the organisation. The possibility of transformational leaders doing more harm than good brings into leadership the dimension of leader's ethics and values. Critics argue that transformational leadership may not be successful if it is not found on a sound ethical base and advocate for value-led (Day *et al.* 2000) or value-driven leadership (Gold *et al.* 2003). The emphasis on ethical dimensions of leadership manifests itself in the literature in the form of ethical or moral leadership (Sergiovanni 1992; Starrat 1998; Starrat 2005). Southworth (1998: 53 – 54) stresses that transformational leadership require leaders:

- to be open and transparent in their dealings with people, rather than manipulative;
- to treat people as persons rather than objects;
- to regard staff as colleagues rather than as subordinates;
- to strive for the school to be a community rather than a purely instrumental organisation;
- to be learners and educators developing themselves as well as others;
- to be inclusive in monitoring, evaluating and planning the school's improvements, rather than exclude colleagues and governors and restricting such dialogues to a privileged group

Thus, both instructional and ethical leadership are viewed to be part and parcel of and complementary to transformational leadership.

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that both transactional and transformational leadership view leadership as a sole responsibility of one person—the superhero leader, and therefore effective school leadership depends upon the head-teacher. However, critics argue that a 'superhero' model of leadership no longer works (Sergiovanni 2001). They maintain that super-heroic images of leadership are not sustainable because the potential and power of leadership disappear once the

superhero head-teachers left the schools for whatever reasons (McMahon 2001; Hargreaves 2005). These criticisms have resulted in several contemporary views of school leadership which challenge the common notion that one individual has to be in charge for effective leadership to take place and depict leadership as shared or distributed process (Lambert 1998; Harris and Day 2003; Harris and Lambert 2003; Spillane *et al.* 2001; Spillane *et al.* 2004; Gronn 2000; Harris 2004). However it is the notion of distributed leadership that has been receiving much attention and a lot of empirical support (Gronn 2000; Harris 2005). Underpinning distributed leadership is the assumption that "school organisations are so complex and the tasks so wide-ranging that no single person has the energy and skill to handle all the leadership functions" (Hoy and Miskel 2005: 403) and therefore "leaders at the organisational apex are not unique sources of change and vision; nor do they act necessarily as single figures coaxing, persuading, inspiring or directing followers towards the 'sunny uplands' of organisational success" (Woods *et al.* 2004: 454). Thus, effective leadership depends upon "the ability of those within a school to work together, constructing meaning and knowledge collectively" (Lambert 1998: 5). Distributed leadership implies a distinction between the leader and leadership. Unlike transactional and transformational leadership which depict leadership as a sole function of the leader, distributed leadership implies redistribution of power and authority so that leadership becomes "a shared and collective endeavour that engages all members of the organisation" (Harris 2003: 75). However, one can question whether distributed leadership is a new phenomenon since division of labour has always been a normal practice in school organisations and in many situations it is dependent on the quality of leadership of the head of school (Jackson, 2000). This view also has support of Leithwood (2006: 179) who writes:

> Shared decision making and collaboration for example, are really quite important to the success of schools. But why do we need to call them "distributed leadership"? These are activities that most of us value highly, but they should not be confused with leadership. Otherwise, the concept loses all unique meaning and significance.

Early and Weindling (2004: 16) contend that success in distributed leadership depends upon the head-teacher and warns that "unless attention is paid to the effectiveness of those leading at the top of the organisation – in our case head-teachers- then the notions of dispersed leadership becomes meaningless". The implication for effective school leadership is that school leaders must be ready and able to share and distribute the leadership role throughout the school organisation and distributed leadership must be part and parcel of school leadership training and development programmes. However, in many situations including the one in Zanzibar the ability of head-teachers to exercise distributed leadership may be limited because of the fear to compromise their authority or to be held accountable for the actions of their subordinates. Consequently, in daily practice they would most likely resort to *delegation* rather than *distributed leadership* in order to ensure that they still remain on the driver's seat (also see **5.1.2.3**).

The foregoing discussions on the concept and theories of leadership show that school leadership is a complex process. It requires mastery of various types of skills, including leader's ability to understand the situation, choose an appropriate behaviour, match relevant traits and behaviour with a specific situation, articulate a shared vision, build an appropriate school culture, put strong emphasis on teaching and learning, and disperse leadership wisely. More recently school leadership has been challenged to address issues related to diversity which are now prevalent in contemporary societies (Lumby and Coleman 2007). Bolman and Deal (1991) contend that there is no leadership theory that is exhaustive enough to provide a

sufficient account of what a good recipe for effective school leadership is. Similarly, Bush (2003) noted that despite the existence of many theories and models of leadership, none of them is sufficient enough to explain or provide an adequate account of effective leadership in educational organisations. Because of the lack of a single, overarching theory of effective leadership, some writers call for conceptual pluralism (Bolman and Deal 1991) through which leadership could be looked upon from different perspectives. For example, Bolman and Deal (1991) urge us to look at leadership from four perspectives which they called leadership frames, namely *political frame, human resource frame, structural frame* and *symbolic frame.* According to Bolman and Deal (1991: 12), "the truly effective manager or leader will need multiple tools, the skills to use each of them, and the wisdom to match frames to situations". Similarly, with respect to schools, Sergiovanni (1991) identifies five *leadership forces* that are available to school principals or head-teachers. These leadership forces are supposedly hierarchical in nature. These leadership forces are technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural. According to Sergiovanni (1991: 100) "each of the "forces" can be used by the principal to push the school forward toward effectiveness or to prevent it from being pushed back" (also see **2.4**).

2.1.6 Effective school leadership and the role of head-teachers

There is plenty of research evidence that associates effective schools with school leadership (Reynolds 1992; Sammons *et al.* 1995; Hallinger and Heck 1996; Leithwood *et al.* 1999; Day *et al.* 2000). Several syntheses from effective school research confirm that purposeful leadership from the school leader is the most common and important feature of effective schools (Sammons *et al.* 1995; Weindling 1999). For example, in a synthetic review of several international studies on school

effectiveness Sammons *et al.* (1995) identify 11 key factors of effective schools, the first one being professional leadership from the school leader, as listed in Table 2.2 below:

Table 2.2: Eleven factors of effective schools

Eleven factors of Effective Schools		
1	Professional leadership	• Firm and purposeful • A participative approach • The leading professional
2	Shared vision and goals	• Unity of purpose • Consistency of practice • Collegiality and collaboration
3	A learning environment	• An orderly atmosphere • An attractive working environment
4	Concentration on teaching and learning	• Maximization of learning time • Academic emphasis • Focus on achievement
5	Purposeful teaching	• Efficient organisation • Clarity of purpose • Structured lessons • Adaptive practice
6	High expectations	• High expectations all round • Communicating expectations • Providing intellectual challenge
7	Positive reinforcement	• Clear and fair discipline • Feedback
8	Monitoring progress	• Monitoring pupil performance • Evaluating school performance
9	Pupil rights and responsibilities	• Raising pupil self-esteem • Positions of responsibility • Control of work
10	Home-school partnership	• Parental involvement in their children's learning
11	A learning organisation	• School-based staff development

Source: Sammons *et al.* 1995: 8

While it is clear that strong leadership from the head-teacher is listed as one of the factors of effective schools, it should be noted that the nature of leadership exercised by the head-teacher could affect all other factors over time. For example, a head-teacher's particular leadership style may affect the motivation of teachers which in turn may affect the academic achievement of students.

In general, evidence from research shows that strong leadership from school leaders has both direct and indirect effects on general school performance (Hallinger and Heck 1996; Hallinger and Heck 1998; Bell *et al.* 2003; Leithwood *et al.* 2006). For example, in a systematic review of studies related to the impact of school leadership and management on student outcomes, Bell *et al.* (2003: 3) conclude:

> Effective leadership was confirmed as probably being an important factor in a school's success. The evidence relating to the effect of head-teachers on student outcomes indicates that such an effect is largely indirect. It is mediated through key intermediate factors, these being the work of teachers, the organisation of the school, and relationship with parents and the wider community.

Similarly after reviewing several studies, Leithwood *et al.* (2006: 5) concluded that "leadership has very significant effects on the quality of school organisation and on pupil learning" and stress that "there is no single documented case of a school successfully turning around its pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership". They concur with Bell *et al.* (2003) and other findings (Hallinger and Heck 1998) that the positive impact of school leaders on general school performance is achieved indirectly mainly through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions. Cheng (2002b) found evidence of a moderate correlation between principal's leadership and attitudes to learning. In a recent review of research Leithwood *et al.* (2006: 4) report that "school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning". Other studies have found that unplanned

succession of head-teachers has devastating effects on school performance particularly on students' achievement; and appointment and retention of new head-teachers is an important strategy for turning around 'ineffective' schools (Macmillan 2000; McMahon 2001; Fink and Bryman 2006).

However, successful leadership of head-teachers very much depends upon how they are able to balance their dual roles, namely those of the chief executive and the leading professional (Hughes 1988). Unlike the past where head-teachers concentrated mainly on the professional role, current education reforms taking place worldwide particularly those related to school based management and accountability have put on new pressures to head-teachers since they are required to pay equal attention to both roles. Law and Glover (2000) elaborate the two roles as shown in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Dual roles of head-teachers

Chief executive officer	↔	Leading professional
↕ Internal role • *Strategist*: articulates organisation's strategic focus and direction; acts as a development catalyst. • *Manager*: allocates and coordinates a range of organisational functions. • Arbitrator: acts as organisational broker and referee	↔	↕ Internal role • *Mentor*: develops others- the professional guidance of staff. • *Educator*: demonstrates technical competence and personal teaching skills. • *Advisor*: supports and counsels pupils, parents, staff etc.
↕ External role • *Executive officer*: accountable to the governing body, local authority, government. • *Diplomat*: articulates mission and undertake public relations with stakeholder communities and external bodies.	↔	↕ External role • *Ambassador*: organisational envoy in wide range of external professional activities. • *Advocate*: institutional spokesperson vis-à-vis educational and professional matters

Source: Law and Glover 2000: 6

According to Law and Glover (2000: 5-6) "effective head-teachers are those able to create synergy out of both 'leading professional' roles and 'chief executive' responsibilities". Underpinning the successful execution of the two roles is the inherent leadership practices of the head-teachers. In their recent synthesis of research, Leithwood *et al.* (2006: 6) conclude that "almost all successful school leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices" and they apply them contextually. These basic leadership practices are as shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Core leadership practices

No	Core leadership practices	Corresponding actions
1.	Building vision and setting directions	• Identifying and articulating a vision • Creating shared meanings • Creating high performance expectations • Fostering the acceptance of group goals • Monitoring organisational performance • Promoting effective communications
2.	Understanding and developing people	• Fostering intellectual stimulation • Providing individual support and consideration • Modelling appropriate values and behaviours
3.	Redesigning the organisation	• Building collaborative cultures • Modifying organisational structure to foster culture building • Building collaborative practices to ensure broad participation in decision making • Building productive relations with parents and the community • Building professional learning communities • Connecting the school to its wider environment
4.	Managing the teaching and learning programme	• Staffing the teaching programme • Providing teaching support • Monitoring school activity • Buffering staff against distractions from their work

Source: Leithwood et al. 2006; Leithwood and Riehl 2003

Leithwood and Riehl (2003) stress that while mastery of these leadership practices is not a guarantee for successful leadership, the lack of mastery almost guarantees

failure. To guarantee successful leadership, head-teachers need to employ additional leadership practices. According to Leithwood and Riehl (2003), these practices may include empowering others to make significant decisions, providing instructional guidance, strategic planning, building powerful forms of teaching and learning, creating strong communities in school, expanding the proportion of students' social capital valued by the school, and nurturing the development of families' educational cultures. These practices are similar to those evident from school effectiveness research where effective school leaders were found to be those who (1) have a sense of mission; (2) use a participative approach in reaching key decisions; (3) exhibit instructional leadership; (4) regularly monitors staff performance; (5) involve themselves in recruitment, selection, appraisal and development of their staff; (6) have an academic orientation (put a lot of emphasis on teaching and learning); (7) motivate staff to have high expectations for students; and (8) use monitoring and evaluation systems to manage and improve school performance (Reynolds 2002). The implications for effective school leadership and leadership training and development are that head-teachers should master the core as well as other leadership practices, and leadership training and development programmes should include and emphasise mastery of such leadership practices.

More recently effective school leadership has been associated with the concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) which is defined by Goleman (1998: 317) as "the capacity for recognising our own feelings and that of others, for motivating ourselves, for managing emotions well in ourselves as well as others". Goleman (1998: 318) identifies five dimensions of EQ:

- *Self-awareness*: Knowing what we are feeling at the moment, and using those preferences to guide our decision making; having realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence.

- *Self-regulation:* Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress.

- *Motivation*: Using our deepest preferences to move and guide us toward our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve, and to preserve in the face of setbacks and frustrations.

- *Empathy*: Sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective, and cultivating rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people.

- *Social skills*: Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these to persuade and lead, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork.

According to Everard *et al.* (2004) emotional intelligence is particularly useful in managing conflict and in "countering the paramountcy of the intellect, which often typifies educational institutions" (p. 12).

In short, there is unequivocal evidence from research showing that strong leadership from the head-teachers have both indirect and direct effect on general school performance and student outcomes and they are able to achieve the desired goals and objectives by drawing on a repertoire of basic leadership practices. Furthermore, research seem to suggest that the positive effect of school leadership becomes greater if it is transformational and widely distributed amongst staff and students (Leithwood *et al.* 2006; Bell *et al.* 2003) and if school leaders are able to understand and apply emotional intelligence appropriately. It is therefore not surprising that governments in many countries are convinced to invest handsomely on school leadership training and development.

However, it has to be realised that these theories were developed and used in industrialised countries of the West and critics are questioning their presumed universal application to other contexts particularly in the low income countries such as Zanzibar (Fosket and Lumby 2003; Dimmock and Walker 2005; Crossley and Watson 2003). For example how can one exercise transformational leadership in highly centralised systems where head-teachers have no resources at their disposal and all major decisions have to be made centrally? Referring to a situation in Zanzibar Sumra (2005: 42) writes:

> In highly centralised countries such as Zanzibar, the role of the head-teacher has tended to be limited to implementing rules and regulations made by the Ministry. Head-teachers role is seen to be in areas such as administration, record keeping, filling various forms, and periodic reporting to the Ministry. Less emphasis is placed on the head-teachers' role as decision maker and as educational leader in the enhancement of school improvement and quality learning. The role of head-teachers has become reactive rather than proactive. When asked what they saw as their vision for the schools, many head-teachers were at loss.

In this case, effective school leadership could be judged from the ability of head-teachers to meet the demands of the central bureaucracy. Similarly in situations where resources are very constrained, effective school leadership could be associated with the ability of school leaders to get more resources for the schools from non-governmental sources. Consequently, the critics argue that 'context matters' (social, economic, cultural, etc.) and call for researchers and policymakers to consider seriously the local conditions when they wish to transfer or apply western developed theories and practices to other countries. To some extent this call is now being realised and there are good examples where western-based theories and practices have been adapted successfully to suit local conditions in low income countries. The cases in point include the Commonwealth Secretariat (1994) and the PRISM (Crossley *et al.* 2005) projects initiatives in Africa to develop local head-teachers' leadership training modules using western competency-based models. Similarly, Heneveld and Craig (1996) used western-based school effectiveness and

improvement literature to develop a model of effective schools for low income African countries.

2.2 School leadership preparation and development

2.2.1 The concept of continuing professional development (CPD)

> Of all the resources at the disposal of a person or organisation it is only people who can grow and develop and be motivated to achieve certain desired ends (Riches and Morgan 1989: 1)

This quotation emphasises the need to view people as the organisation's most important and indispensable resource for improving organisational performance and the need to develop this resource to its maximum potential cannot be overemphasised. Thus human resource development (HRD) is now considered to be part and parcel of the overall human resource management (HRM) strategy of any organisation. According to Gold (2003: 316) HRD "comprises the procedures and processes that purposely seek to provide learning activities to enhance the skills, knowledge and capabilities of people, teams and the organisation so that there is a change in action to achieve the desired outcomes". Unlike the past where training was narrowly viewed as short term cost and limited to 'one-shot' workshops and conferences where learners listen passively to 'experts', now learning is regarded as a long term investment and is conceptualised as a life long process which can take place in different forms both at individual and organisational level. These forms include *professional development* which aims at increasing personal professional skills of the individual; *staff development* which aims at developing staff to meet the needs of the organisation which they work; and *career development* which aims at developing the individuals so that their career can progress (Fidler 1997). Bolam (1993) contends that learning could be in the form of *professional training* which emphasises practical

information and skills and is usually in the form of short courses, workshops and conferences; *professional education* which emphasises theory and research-based knowledge and is delivered through long courses; and *professional support* which embraces activities that aim at developing on the job experience and performance. Continuing professional development (CPD) is a common term that embraces all these various forms of learning. Other terms associated with CPD include in-service education and training (INSET), human resource development, continuing education and lifelong learning (Bolam and McMahon 2004). Because of its association with such a variety of terms, it is difficult to provide a precise definition of CPD. Early and Bubb (2004: 3) define CPD as "all formal and informal learning that enables individuals to improve their own practice". They insist that CPD covers both occupational role development and personal development and the two are complementary. For Day (1999: 4) CPD "consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities that are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group, or school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom". Bolam (1993) sees CPD as any professional development activity that enhances the knowledge and skills of educators with an ultimate purpose of improving the quality of teaching and learning process. Recently, CPD has been associated with the concept of *learning organisations* (Senge 1990) and *professional learning communities* (Hargreaves 2003) in which organisations such as schools create opportunities for all its members (staff and students) to learn and therefore head-teachers become head-learners and leaders of learning.

Underpinning most of the definitions of CPD is the emphasis they put on meeting individual and organisational needs. Thus, identifying training and learning needs at

organisational and personal level becomes critical to successful development of any CPD programme (Marchington and Wilkinson 2005; Armstrong 2003). According to West-Burnham (1998: 99) "needs analysis provides the crucial information to ensure that professional learning is appropriate, valid and relevant". The implications for school leadership training and development is that both organisational and individual training needs assessment must be carried out before any training and development programme is initiated and the CPD programmes should focus on individual, school and national priorities.

However, while no one disputes the role of CPD in improving teaching and learning, "questions about what forms of CPD are likely to lead to this improvement and who should take decisions about the most appropriate type of provision and the priority areas to focus upon are highly debatable" (McMahon 1999: 103). CPD can be conceptualised as a continuum in which at one end organisational or system needs are more dominant while at the other end individual needs are more dominant. Dempster (2001) refer these two ends of the continuum as people and system focussed CPD. Normally there is a conflict between CPD programmes that are designed to serve mainly individual interests and those that aim at serving mainly organisational or national interests. Effective CPD programmes are those that are able to strike a fine balance between the two extremes (Dempster 2001). Similarly, Early and Bubb (2004) stress that CPD has to meet, several, sometimes contradictory needs such as supporting school development plans, national and local government initiatives and individual development plans (personal, professional and propersonal).

2.2.2 Competency/competence-based models of school leadership training and development

The undisputable research evidence on the role of head-teachers in bringing about school improvement and raising education standards and the ever increasing demands on head-teachers to respond positively and confidently to current and future global and national education reforms have necessitated many governments to recognise the need for specific leadership preparation for aspiring and practising head-teachers. For example, in the UK, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) runs three different programmes, namely, Head-teachers' Induction Programme (HIP) for newly appointed heads, the National Qualification for Headship (NPHQ) for aspiring heads and the Leadership Programme for Serving Heads (LPSH). Similarly, in other countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Sweden, Hong Kong and Singapore, various institutions are running variety of head-teachers'/principals' preparation and development programmes (Bush and Jackson 2002).

Underpinning most of the school leadership preparation and development programmes in many countries is the adoption of competence/competency-based approaches (Brundrett 2000; Dempster 2001). According to Trotter and Ellison (1997) the competence approach is based on a functional analysis of the specific skills demanded by headship and focus on the outputs that a head-teacher is required to deliver; while the competency approach is based on the inputs (personal qualities) that a head-teacher brings to the job. Inherent in the competence/competency based approaches is the assumption that effective leadership demands school leaders to master a set of core competencies which in many countries are presented in the form of 'standards' for head-teachers/principals. According to the Teacher Training

Agency (TTA) (1997: 1) of the UK, the standards "define expertise in headship and are designed to serve as the basis for planning the professional development of both aspiring and serving head-teachers". Similarly, the Interstate School Leaders Consortium (ISLLC) standards form the basis for school leadership preparation and development in many states in the USA (Murphy 2005). Competency/competence based approaches to leadership preparation and development are also prevalent in Hong Kong (Wong 2004; Wong 2005), and various states in Australia (Dempster 2001). Similarly, the Commonwealth Secretariat (1994) used competency/competence based approaches to develop training modules that were used for head-teachers' training and development in various African countries. Despite their wide application in several countries, competence/competency based approaches to leadership preparation and development are not without criticisms (West-Burnham 1997b; Brundrett 2000; Wildy and Louden 1997; Leithwood and Steinbach 2003; Leithwood *et al.* 2003). For example, West-Burnham (1997b: 141) while acknowledging the importance of competencies, they are more concerned with personal aspects of leadership which could not easily be reduced to a set of competencies or standards. They see morals and values of school leaders as central to successful school leadership

> There is no doubt that leaders need knowledge (or access to knowledge) and a range of skills in order to be effective. However, these have to be contextualised in terms of personal values, self-awareness, emotional and moral capability.

Wildy and Louden (1997) argue that competence-based frameworks do not reflect the practical situation faced on a daily basis by head-teachers in schools. A similar concern is shown by Leithwood and Steinbach (2003) who argue that the competencies as reflected in the standards for head-teachers often assume that leadership practices are not problematic and could be applied irrespective of context,

which in reality is not necessarily the case. Each school is unique and different and each situation may require head-teachers to use different sets of knowledge and skills. Furthermore, by sticking to a set of competencies, head-teachers may not be able to respond adequately to new challenges brought forward by ever increasing national and global educational agenda. Brundrett (2000: 88) contends that the "complex, challenging and mercurial work of head-teachers cannot be reduced to a set of skills to be acquired and, even if it could, it is questionable whether we could ever define methods whereby such complex skills could be acquired swiftly".

That being said, Brundrett (2000: 88) does not dismiss the competence-based training system and acknowledges its importance:

> ... It is equally clear that there are certain sets of skills and qualities that we would see desirable, even unquestionable, requirements of school leaders such as the ability to communicate fluently both in the written and spoken form. We may even wish to see that school leaders relate well to young people and that they, themselves, are skilled educators. Where such skills and knowledge can be defined and measured it would be unwise, even otiose to suggest that they should not be defined and incorporated into training programmes. In this sense all management education should follow a competence approach.

According to Brundrett (2000) head-teachers need to have a passing comprehension of areas such as the curriculum and its management, the laws relating to educational institutions, the construction and maintenance of buildings and grounds and the management of finances. However, Brundrett (2000: 89 - 90) stress that "*mere competence is not and should not be enough* for school leaders" and argue that "school management must go *beyond competence*", by ensuring that professional, capable, energetic, creative, intelligent and caring people are in charge of schools, thus acknowledging the importance of school leaders' personal qualities and values. Therefore, some writers advocate for the adoption of more holistic competence-based models of education and training (Finn: 1996; Cheetham and Chivers: 1996). Consequently, most current head-teachers' training and development programmes try

to address the inadequacies of the traditional approaches by incorporating elements of personal attributes, qualities, values or dispositions. However, in order to avoid controversies that could be generated by the word '*competence*' the term '*standards*' is now commonly used instead of 'competence'. According to the TTA (1998) the standards set out the knowledge, understanding, skills and attributes which relate to the key areas of headship. But the fact remains the same – "the national standards are based on a competence approach, although the term 'competence' has been avoided" (Bush 1998: 327) and are still underpinning current school leadership training and development programmes in many countries. For example, in England the two main qualifications of head-teachers based on standards are the NPQH and LPSH (Eynon and Wall 2002). Brundrett *et al.* (2006) and Tomlinson (2004) also acknowledge the prevalence of the competence-based approaches in head-teachers' leadership training and development programmes in the UK when they contend that despite its revision in 2000 by the NCSL, the NPHQ has become much more competency based. Jirasinhge and Lyons (1996: 18) believe that competency-based approach to education management have potential benefits because "in their appropriate use robustly generated and validated competencies present the best vehicle ... for an objective diagnosis of development and training needs, and a systematic approach to selection and recruitment". Similarly (Murphy 2005: 171) defends the adoption of competence/competency-based approaches because "at their core, the *Standards* are empirically anchored and values grounded". Consequently, the development and use of competence/competency-based approaches appears to be a world-wide trend (Weindling 2003) and standards dominate most school leadership preparation and development programmes in many countries. However, necessary modifications have to be made in order to reflect local context and current thinking in school leadership

such as the concepts of distributed or shared leadership, emotional intelligence, organisational learning and professional learning communities.

2.2.3 Content of leadership training and development programmes

After their visit to several leadership preparation and development centres in different countries Bush and Jackson (2002: 420 - 421) concluded that "the content of educational leadership programmes has considerable similarities in different countries, leading to hypothesis that there is an international curriculum for school leadership preparation". They found that curricula in most countries include the following: leadership (including vision, mission and transformational leadership), instructional leadership (emphasis on teaching and learning), human resource management, professional development, financial management, curriculum and external relations. This list concurs with Murphy and Schwartz's (2000) notion of leadership for student learning where emphasis is put on instructional leadership, community leadership and visionary leadership; and Mestry and Grobler's (2002) views which stress that training and development of principals should include the following components: management of the curriculum, management of organisational structure, management of educators and management of financial and physical resources. Jirasinghe and Lyons (1996) identify the following competence areas for head-teachers: the planning and administrative process (analysing, planning, directional leadership); dealing with people (sensitivity, motivating, evaluating); managing the political environment (political ability, persuading and negotiating); professional and technical knowledge (professional knowledge, technical knowledge); and personal skills (commitment and values, reasoning and judgement, self-awareness and development, projecting a favourable image and communicating).

Eraut (1994a) sees head-teachers' job as an integration of both educational and management tasks and suggests that the content of professional development programmes of head-teachers should cover broadly six categories, namely, developing knowledge of people, developing situational knowledge, developing knowledge of educational practice, developing conceptual knowledge, developing process knowledge, and developing control knowledge. Themes related to values, emotional intelligence (EQ), instructional/learning centred leadership and leadership and learning also embrace many current leadership training and development programmes (Weindling 2003).

It is clear from the literature that the content of school leadership training and development programmes has at least to focus on the core business of the school (improving teaching and learning), leadership and management skills (articulating and implementing school vision), personal /interpersonal skills, maintaining and developing resources (human, material and financial) and building external relations (community and other stakeholders).

2.2.4 Delivery of leadership training and development programmes

Several approaches are used to train and develop school leaders. Snape *et al* (1994) distinguishes between pedagogical and andragogical approaches to training and development. The pedagogical approach is normally trainer driven and learners do not have much say on what they learn. On the other hand, the andragogical approach is "essentially self-directed and participative, with the trainer providing a facilitative or supportive role" (Markington and Wilkinson 2005: 245). School leadership training and development could also be based on individual or group approach.

Combining the two approaches provides four categories of leadership training and development methods (Markington and Wilkinson 2005). These categories are presented graphically in Figure 2.1.

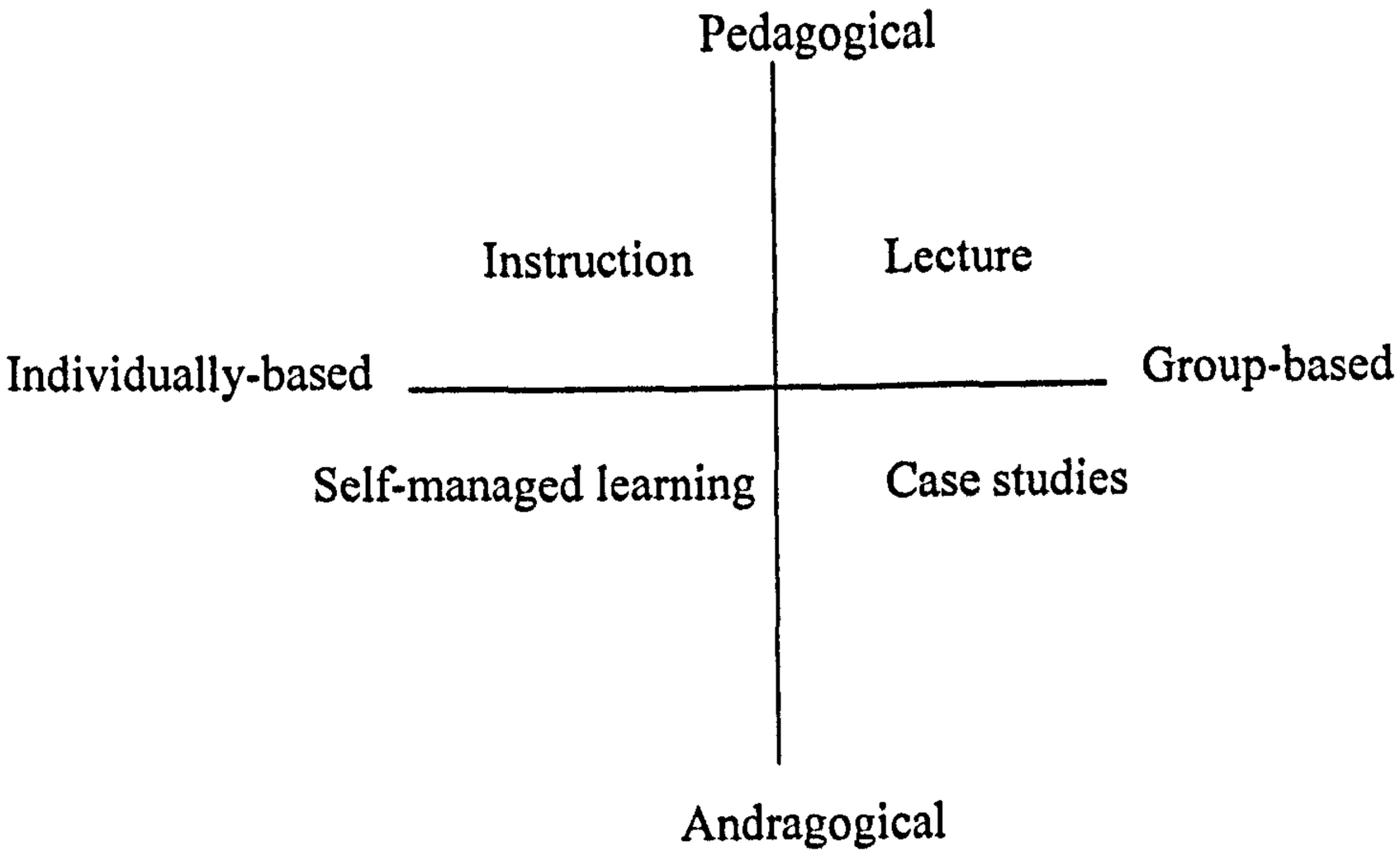

Figure 2.1: Categories of training and learning methods (adopted from Markington and Wilkinson 2005: 246)

The top left-hand quadrant constitutes methods that are pedagogically oriented and individually based, and they include one to one instructional techniques and simulations. Here individual learners are given instruction on how to do things until they have mastered the task. According to Marchington and Wilkinson (2005: 245) these methods are "particularly useful for the acquisition of standard programmable skills, for the transfer of routine information and ways of working, but which also require practice and application in real-life situations". The right top-hand quadrant constitutes methods that are pedagogically oriented and group-based and these include lectures, presentations and videos. These methods are more cost-effective and are appropriate when a large number of people have to be given information at the same time. The effectiveness of the method depends upon to what extent the lecturers are able to maintain the motivation of their learners since lectures may

sometimes be boring or not interesting to the learners. The bottom right-hand quadrant constitutes methods that are andragogical and group-based. These methods include case studies, group role playing exercises and projects. The distinct feature of these methods is that "they are essentially team-oriented and allow the group to propose their own solutions and ideas to problems with a minimum of trainer's intervention during the process" (Marchington and Wilkinson 2005: 247). The effectiveness of these methods depends upon to what extent the facilitator is able to manage the problems normally associated with group dynamics. The bottom left-hand quadrant constitutes methods that are individually and andragogical-based. Underpinning these methods is self-managed learning. They may include e-learning, use of language laboratories and distance learning. These methods are more suitable for learning impersonal techniques such as financial accounting, and information and communication technologies. According to Marchington and Wilkinson (2005) the choice of particular methods depends upon various factors including costs, benefits, likelihood of learning transfer to the work situation, profile of the learner group, applicability of the method, as well as the culture of the organisation and its strategic goals.

It is now well acknowledged that adult learning is different from children's learning. Knowles (1968: 351) distinguishes between *andragogy* – "the art and science of helping adults learn" and *pedagogy* – "the art and science of how children learn". According to Knowles (1984), adult learners become motivated when learning is: self-directed and delivered in a climate of trust, openness and respect; biased towards problem solving; related to learners' previous experiences; and relevant to their personal and career interests. These learning characteristics are more profound in the

andragogical approaches shown in the bottom quadrants of Figure 2.1. The andragogical approaches also embrace CPD models that are based on experiential learning such as Kolb's (1984) and Dennison and Kirk' (1990) learning cycles as well as social learning such as Wenger's (1998) 'communities of practice'. The implication for school leadership training and development is that as adults, aspiring and practising head-teachers get motivated and benefit most in training and development programmes that are based upon andragogical approaches.

2.3 Limitations of the reviewed literature

It is obvious that most of the reviewed literature reflect the situation in industrialised countries particularly the UK, USA and Australia. This is due to the fact that "the role of leadership and management in schools in developing countries is an under-researched area" (Simkins *et al.* 2003: 276). Because of differences in socioeconomic and cultural development, the western literature may not have the same relevance in low income countries (Harber and Davies 1997; Oplatka 2004; Dimmock and Walker 2005) particularly in Africa. For example, while the reviewed literature seem to emphasise the use of transformational, instructional and distributed leadership practices, one wonders how they may be practiced in many low income countries in Africa where education systems are highly centralised and school leaders are mere public servants placed to implement orders from the top. It is because of this situation that Harber and Davies (1997) see headship in Africa as similar to the job of a taxi driver. Also, while availability of teaching and learning materials, teacher qualifications and conditions of school buildings may not be burning issues in the industrialised world, they were found to have significant impact on student outcomes in low income countries (Fuller and Clarke 1994; Boissier 2004). Similarly, while

head-teachers in industrialised countries play an important role in staff recruitment, selection and development, their counterparts in low income countries have no say on who teaches in their schools (Harber and Dadey 1993). Furthermore, while head-teachers in industrialised countries are surrounded by colleagues who are well trained, their colleagues in Africa are faced with a considerable number of untrained and under-qualified teachers. Moreover, head-teachers in low income countries have a harder time in motivating teachers because of their low morale caused by poor working conditions. These examples demonstrate the importance of context and culture when researching on effective school leadership or when designing or evaluating leadership training and development programmes.

Another limitation of the reviewed literature on school leadership is that it is often based on the accounts of head-teachers or principals. Not much has been written about what other stakeholders such as teachers, students, policymakers and parents think about effective school leadership. Furthermore, no efforts have been made to carry out studies that may contribute to shared understandings of the meaning of effective school leadership amongst key education stakeholders. In issues that are very highly contested such as education, the importance of consulting stakeholders cannot be overemphasised.

Despite these limitations, there are also convincing arguments for adapting western-derived theories and practices in low income countries, of course after taking into account the local context. In the current era of globalisation, one cannot deny the fact that most reforms taking place in the industrialised world have an impact on what goes on in low income countries. One reason is due to the fact that most low income

countries depend on external aid from industrialised countries, and the aid normally flows with strings attached. For example in education, decentralisation, school-based management and community involvement that are common features of education systems of the industrialised countries are now part and parcel of aid agencies policies in low income countries (World Bank 2005). Thus, school-based leadership and management is now becoming a worldwide phenomenon. The second reason is that despite international differences there are some issues that appear to be universal. Drawing from an international study of school leadership development that involved 15 countries in Europe, Asia, Australia, New Zealand and North America, Huber (2003) concluded that despite differences in cultural and institutional traditions, there are common tendencies and trends throughout the countries. Also, as already reported, Leithwood *et al.* (2006) identify core leadership practices that are applicable in all contexts. Similarly, Bush and Glover (2004) report on some convergence of curriculum content of leadership training and development programmes across various countries in the world. Furthermore, as already reported, the works of the Commonwealth Secretariat (1994), Henveld and Craig (1996) and Crossley *et al.* (2005) in Africa are clear evidence demonstrating that if adapted to suit local conditions, some western-based theories, concepts and practices may successfully be used to facilitate social and economic developments in low income countries.

2.4 Conceptual framework for the study

Based upon the literature review above the conceptual framework for this study drew from the following:

i. *Conceptual pluralism approach to effective school leadership:* Since, there is no singular overarching theory of effective school leadership,

conceptual pluralism, particularly Sergiovanni's (1991) typology of five leadership forces is used to conceptualise the study. According to Sergiovanni (1991), the first leadership force is *technical force* (Bolman and Deal's structural frame) in which head-teachers assume the role of '*management engineer*', and through sound management techniques such as planning, organising, coordinating, budgeting, and many others, they use this force to ensure proper management of the schools. The second leadership force available to the head-teachers is the *human force* (Bolman and Deal's human resource/political frames) in which the head-teacher assumes the role of *'human engineer'*. Under this force head-teachers recognise human resource available in their schools as the most important asset and through proper use of human relations, interpersonal competence and instrumental motivation techniques they provide support, encouragement and growth opportunities to their staff that are necessary for successful implementation of the desired goals. The third force available to head-teachers is the *educational force* through which head-teachers assume the role of '*clinical practitioner'* and use their expert professional knowledge such as in diagnosing education problems, counselling staff and students, developing curriculum, appraising staff performance, and providing staff development to improve teaching and learning. The fourth force available to head-teachers is *symbolic force* (Bolman and Deal's symbolic frame) through which head-teachers assume the role of the '*chief*' and through symbolic actions (e.g. articulating a shared vision, presiding over ceremonies, spending time with students) they focus attention of others on what is important and needs to be done to

realise school goals and objectives. The fifth and last force available to head-teachers is the *cultural force* (Bolman and Deal's political/symbolic frames) through which head-teachers assume the role of the '*high priest*' and use this force to inculcate norms and values and reinforce myths, traditions and beliefs that are conducive to building a unique school culture necessary for realising schools' vision, mission, goals and objectives.

In examining both Bolman and Deal's leadership frames, and Sergiovanni's leadership forces, one can easily link structural frame/technical force and human resource frame/human force with aspects of transactional leadership (management); and symbolic frame/force and cultural force with aspects of transformational leadership (leadership). Sergiovanni's educational force is unique for schools and could be linked with instructional/learning-centred leadership. Sergiovanni's model also emphasises the notion of leadership density, ("the extent to which leadership roles are shared and the extent to which leadership is broadly exercised" (Sergiovanni 1991: 122)) thus acknowledging the importance of distributed leadership. According to Sergiovanni (1991), the technical, human and educational forces enable head-teachers to accomplish effective management of their schools but to achieve the desired excellence they need to focus more on symbolic and cultural forces. Both Bolman and Deal (1991) and Sergiovanni (1991) reinforce further the notion that schools need effective management and effective leadership, and that transactional leadership is part and parcel of transformational

leadership. The implications for school leadership is that for schools to achieve excellence, head-teachers must not only be able to use the leadership frames or forces appropriately in different situations, but they also need to pay more attention to symbolic and cultural leadership. Similarly, leadership training and development programmes that have traditionally focussed on school effectiveness (technical, human and educational forces) need to be revisited to ensure that they also focus much attention to cultural and symbolic leadership.

Sergiovanni's typology of leadership has been chosen because it is possible to adapt it to suit local conditions. For example it does not confine itself to a particular leadership theory, but it embraces most theories of school leadership including transactional, transformational, moral, and instructional leadership. The model also includes the notion of *leadership density*, thus acknowledging distributed leadership. Effective school leadership takes place when the head-teacher is able to use the five leadership forces appropriately and they can achieve this if they possess the necessary leadership competencies. Consequently, there are five clusters of leadership competencies, namely, technical leadership, human leadership, educational leadership, cultural leadership and symbolic leadership. By mastering these competencies head-teachers are able to carry out or demonstrate desirable actions that could result in effective school leadership. By categorising head-teachers' actions and competencies according to the five leadership forces, it becomes possible to identify which head-teachers' actions or practices are more predominant

and what impact they have in exercising effective school leadership in a particular context. Similarly, it becomes possible to identify the competencies that are perceived to be important and/or which ones should be targeted for head-teachers' CPD programmes.

ii. *Continuing professional development (CPD):* Like many other professions school leadership has to reflect various changes caused by developments in theory, research and practice both nationally and internationally. School leadership preparation and development should therefore be based on the concept of life-long learning. Furthermore for professional development of head-teachers to be effective it must reflect national, institutional and individual needs. It should therefore be based on a sound training needs assessment that involves all key stakeholders.

iii. *Competence-based approach to leadership training and development*: It is believed that for head-teachers to be effective they have to master certain core competencies (knowledge, skills, values, and attributes). One way to arrive at these competencies is to seek the perceptions of relevant stakeholders including head-teachers who exercise leadership; teachers and students who are led; senior education officials who formulate school leadership and management policies and practices and parents who want their children to get the best education.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the literature that has informed and has helped in the conceptualisation of the study. It has examined the concepts of leadership and continuing professional development and their implications for effective school leadership and training and development of head-teachers. Also, it has highlighted the limitations of the reviewed literature. Finally the chapter has presented the conceptual framework that guided the development of research questions and methodological design of this study. These issues are the subject of the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In any research design, there are three critical elements that the researcher must explain explicitly. These elements are: the philosophical (paradigmatic) position of the researcher, the adopted research methodology (strategy) and the methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell 2003). The purpose of this chapter is to examine critically these elements with an objective to set out a case for the choice of the methodology adopted in the present study. It starts in **3.1** by examining the main paradigmatic positions found in the literature, namely post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatism and associated research approaches/strategies (quantitative, qualitative and mixed-methods) (Creswell 2003; Robson 2002) and builds a case for the researcher's choice of pragmatism and mixed-methods. In **3.2**, it examines the various mixed-methods strategies in order to justify the use of sequential mixed-methods strategy as an approach of inquiry, and group interviews particularly the nominal group technique (NGT) and survey particularly the use of self-administered questionnaire as methods and tools of data collection in this study. Section **3.3** covers the qualitative part of the study (Phase 1) and includes discussions of the procedures of qualitative data collection and analysis followed by the discussion of the validity of the findings. Section **3.4** deals with the quantitative part of the study (Phase 2) and discusses how quantitative data were collected and analysed, and how validity and reliability issues were addressed. Section **3.5** deals with the interpretation phase and discusses how qualitative and quantitative data were integrated and interpreted, followed in **3.6** by the discussion of the role played by the

researcher particularly with respect to negotiating access and the main ethical issues that confronted the study. Finally section **3.7** presents a summary that highlights the main issues covered in this chapter.

3.1 Philosophical stance of the researcher

A philosophical stance (paradigmatic position) in research may refer to a way in which a researcher makes claims about what is knowledge (ontology) and how he/she goes about knowing it (epistemology) (Creswell 2003). In other words, ontological claims involve the researcher's beliefs about the nature of social reality and how it can be understood; and epistemological claims involve the nature of knowledge and how it can be acquired. These knowledge claims/paradigms and their key features are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Types of knowledge claims/paradigms

Paradigms		Key features
1	Post-positivism (Thinking after positivism)	• Deterministic in nature where causes are assumed to determine effects or outcomes; • Reductionist in nature where large problems are reduced to a small set of variables that can be expressed in the form of answerable research questions or testable hypotheses; • Based upon objectivism where objective reality is believed to exist "out there" to be discovered by empirical investigation through careful observations and measurements; • Emphasises theory verification because the world is believed to be governed by theories or laws and in order to understand the world better, these theories or laws need to be tested or verified and refined; • Employs quantitative research strategies such as experiments and surveys in collecting and analysing data. (Creswell 2003)

2	Constructivism (social constructivism)	• Rejects the view that 'truths' about the social world can be established by using natural science methods ; • Believes that reality is socially constructed and is examined through the eyes of the participants; • Denies the existence of external reality which is independent of our theoretical beliefs and concepts (Robson 2002). • Believes that there are multiple interpretations of, and perspectives on, single events and situations (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2007). • Believes that meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting (Crotty 1998). • Considers that the task of the researcher is to understand the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge; • Emphasises theory generation (Creswell 2003). • Employs qualitative research strategies of inquiry such as ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, case studies and narratives; • Tends to use qualitative research methods such as interviews and observations (Robson 2002).
3	Advocacy/ Participatory	• Sees both postpositivism and constructivism as inadequate because their underlying assumptions do not serve the interests of marginalised people or groups; • Holds up to the lights of legitimacy and equality issues of repression, voice, ideology, power, participation, representation, inclusion, and interests; • Intends to transform society and individuals to social democracy; • Seeks to uncover the interests at work in particular situations and to interrogate the legitimacy of those interests—identifying the extent to which they are legitimate in their service of equality and democracy (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2007). • Emancipates people from the constraints of irrational and unjust structures that limit self-development and self determination; • Practical and collaborative in nature; • Basically qualitative in nature (Creswell 2003).
4	Pragmatism	• Not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality; • Allows free choice of the methods, techniques and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes; • Sees truth as what works at a particular time; it is not based in strict dualism between the mind and a reality completely independent of the mind; • Pragmatist researchers look to the "what" and "how" to research based on its intended consequences -- where they want to go with it (Creswell 2003). • Believes in the value of choosing the most appropriate research method or methods to address specific research questions; • Interested in ensuring a suitable 'fit' between the research methods used and the research questions posed than in the degree of philosophical coherence of the epistemological positions typically associated with different research methods (Snape and Spenser 2003). • Advocates for the use of mixed methods in research, and acknowledges that the values of the researcher play a large role in interpretation of results (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

For a long time, a researcher's paradigmatic choice has been a debatable issue and two main schools of thought are evident in the literature. The first school of thought is the *'incompatibility thesis'* (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998) and its proponents argue that a researcher must stick to a single paradigmatic stance, and this stance should dictate the choice of research design including the methodology, methods and instruments to be employed in a particular research (Lincoln and Guba 1985). For example, depending upon one's view of the world, the '*incompatibility thesis'* enjoins researchers to adhere strictly to either positivism/post-positivism or constructivism and researchers should conduct their studies by using only quantitative or qualitative approaches respectively. Therefore, two competing camps emerged, with proponents from each camp claiming superiority over the other, leading to what Gage (1989) called 'paradigm wars'. The second school of thought is the *'compatibility thesis'* (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998) and its proponents argue that it should be possible for a researcher to adopt different paradigmatic positions and the nature of the research problem and question should dictate the researcher's paradigmatic position. This is the rationale behind pragmatism. Underpinning pragmatism is the 'dictatorship of the research question' whereby research question or problem tends to determine the methodology and methods to be employed in a particular research (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Unlike positivism/post-positivism and constructivism that confine the researcher to select methods within the respective paradigms, pragmatism allows researchers to select methods from any paradigm that will best suit the research problem and answer the research questions. Proponents of pragmatism believe that depending upon the nature of the research problem it should be possible for a researcher to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches and methods within a single study. Thus pragmatists use a mixed method approach, which is defined by Creswell (2003: 18-19) as:

> ...one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (e.g., consequence oriented, problem-centred, and pluralistic). It employs strategies of enquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final data base represents both quantitative and qualitative information.

In this study the researcher decided to adopt pragmatism. This stance was motivated by several reasons. First, this study is consequence oriented and problem centred as it seeks to understand the meaning of effective school leadership and to identify the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers which if addressed will facilitate effective school leadership. Second, this study is pluralistic since it embraces different worldviews, employs multiple methods and uses both qualitative and quantitative data to draw conclusions. In this study, qualitative and quantitative approaches and methods have to be employed because of the need to: (1) explore the issues under investigation from the perspective of the stakeholders; and (2) have results that could be generalised and have wider application to the targeted populations, namely secondary school head-teachers and senior officials. In short, the objectives of this study would not have been met if the researcher confined himself strictly to either post-positivism/positivism or constructivism with their quantitative and qualitative strategies and methods respectively. Thus, the use of mixed methods in this study is well justified and pragmatism is well placed for this purpose.

The use of mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) within a single research study is now very well recognised as is evident from the growing number of books (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Creswell 2003), chapters in books (Creswell 2002; Bryman 2004; Punch 2005), and journal articles (Greene *et al.* 1989; Caracelli and Greene 1993) on mixed methods research. Several advantages are associated with the use of mixed methods in research. For example, as

evident from this study, qualitative research could facilitate quantitative inquiry and vice versa (Bryman 2004; Punch 2005). Bryman (2004: 457) acknowledges two advantages, namely, *providing hypotheses* - "because of its tendency towards an unstructured, open-ended approach to data collection, qualitative research is often helpful as a source of hypotheses or hunches that can be subsequently tested using a quantitative research strategy"; and *aiding measurement* - "the in-depth knowledge of social contexts acquired through qualitative research can be used to inform the design of survey questions for structured interviewing and self-completion questionnaire". Punch (2005: 240) contends that "the reasons for combining are to capitalise on the strengths of the two approaches and to compensate for the weaknesses of each approach". Another advantage that could be associated with the mixed methods approach is triangulation (Punch 2005), that is, "comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information or phenomena" (Bush 2002: 68). Despite these advantages, the use of mixed methods in research also has several challenges such as "the need for extensive data collection, the time-intensive nature of analysing both text and numeric data and the requirement for the researcher to be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research" (Creswell 2003: 210).

3.2 Research approach (strategy)

Creswell *et al.* (2003) identify six mixed methods strategies within the mixed methods approach. These strategies are: sequential explanatory strategy, sequential exploratory strategy, sequential transformative strategy, concurrent triangulation strategy, concurrent nested strategy and concurrent transformative strategy. According to Creswell *et al.* (2003) the choice of a particular strategy depends upon

four criteria namely, the nature of implementation—whether data will be collected sequentially or concurrently; the priority given – whether greater priority is given to the qualitative or quantitative approach or the two approaches are given equal status; integration of data —which stage of the research process will the qualitative and quantitative data be integrated, for example will it be at the stage of data collection, analysis or interpretation?; and theoretical perspective—whether a particular theory guides the study. Table 3.2 highlights these strategies and their key features.

Table 3.2: Mixed methods strategies and their key features

Strategy	**Implementation**	**Priority**	**Stage of Integration**	**Use of Theory**
Sequential explanatory	Quantitative followed by qualitative	Usually quantitative; can be qualitative or equal	Interpretation phase	May be present
Sequential exploratory	Qualitative followed by quantitative	Usually qualitative; can be quantitative or equal	Interpretation phase	May be present
Sequential transformative	Either quantitative followed by qualitative or qualitative followed by quantitative	Quantitative, qualitative or equal	Interpretation phase	Definitely present (i.e., conceptual framework, advocacy, empowerment)
Concurrent triangulation	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Preferably equal; can be quantitative or qualitative	Interpretation phase or analysis phase	May be present
Concurrent nested	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Quantitative or qualitative	Analysis phase	May be present
Concurrent transformative	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Quantitative, qualitative or equal	Usually analysis phase; can be during interpretation phase	Definitely present (i.e., conceptual framework, advocacy, empowerment)

Source: Creswell et al. 2003

The nature of research questions in this study demanded the use of the sequential exploratory strategy for the following reasons. First, the study had to be conducted in two sequential phases. The first phase of the study was qualitative in nature since it aimed at understanding the meanings of effective school leadership from the perspectives of the key education stakeholders, namely senior education officials (policymakers), head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, students and parents. The second phase of the study was quantitative in nature and used the data collected in the qualitative phase to construct an instrument that was used to extend the study and validate the qualitative findings to whole populations of the two most important stakeholder groups, namely senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners). Second, the collected qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately and then integrated at the interpretation phase. Finally the study used Sergiovanni's typology of school leadership as its conceptual framework. Thus, this study had all the features of a sequential exploratory mixed study strategy. The two phases are discussed in detail in the following sections. Table 3.3 summarises the research design.

Table 3.3: Summary of the research design

Research Questions (RQ)	Participants	Methods	Data	Analysis
Phase 1 Questions **RQ 1:** What do key education stakeholders including secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, students, parents and MoEVT's senior education officials (policymakers) understand by the concept of 'effective school leadership'?	Five stakeholder groups (senior officials, head-teachers, teachers, students and parents).	Group interviews using nominal group technique (NGT).	Qualitative	Looking for common themes, patterns; Ranking to determine priorities.

RQ 2: What do these stakeholders think head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership?	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
RQ 3: What do these stakeholders think are the competencies that head-teachers should have to demonstrate effective school leadership?	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
Phase 2 Questions **RQ 4:** What do secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as the most important characteristics/features of effective school leadership?	Secondary school head-teachers and senior education officials	Surveying using self-administered questionnaire. (Refer to items with codes E1 to E25 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.3).	Quantitative	Rating using Likert scales. Using descriptive statistics to rank and determine priorities.
RQ 5: What actions do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate of effective school leadership?	Ditto	Surveying using self-administered questionnaire. (Refer to items with codes A1 to A50 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.3).	Ditto	Ditto
RQ 6: What competencies do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate of effective school leadership?	Ditto	Surveying using self-administered questionnaire. (Refer to items with codes C1 to C35 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.3).	Ditto	Ditto
RQ 7: What competencies do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as priorities for continuing professional development of secondary school head-teachers?	Ditto	Surveying using self-administered questionnaire. (Refer to items with codes C1 to C35 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.3).	Ditto	Ditto

3.3 Phase 1

The aim of this phase was to get answers to the first four research questions (RQ 1, RQ 2, RQ 3 and RQ 4) from the perspectives of the stakeholders, namely MoEVT's senior education officials, secondary school head-teachers, teachers, students and parents. Therefore it was qualitative in nature. The procedures used to collect and analyse qualitative data are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1 Selecting the method

Several methods are employed in collecting qualitative data. These methods include observations, documentary analysis, and individual and group interviews. 'Effective school leadership' may be a highly contested term as different stakeholders may interpret the term differently. Therefore, it was very important to understand effective school leadership from the stakeholders' perspectives. In this case, individual and group interviews become the most appropriate methods. Despite the obvious advantages of individual interviews such as their ability to deal with topics in depth and in detail, and the high response rate, group interviews were found to be more appropriate for this study because education has many stakeholder groups (government officials, head-teachers, students, teachers and parents) and group interviews have the potential to probe and get richer contextualised data from many people within a very short time. Furthermore, the interaction found in group dynamics may lead to more realistic accounts of what people feel or think because group members may challenge each other's views and are therefore forced to think very carefully before presenting their ideas.

3.3.2 Selecting the instrument

Two main types of group interviews are evident in the literature namely focus group interviews and nominal group interviews. In this study, nominal group technique (NGT) was used to collect data from the stakeholders groups. The NGT is an interview technique where participants meet together in a group but members in the group respond to the questions by writing their ideas independently without verbally interacting with each other (MacPhail 2001). It relies on the individual generation of ideas, which are then pooled together and discussed by all members of the group followed by prioritisation of the generated ideas through mathematical voting procedures. NGT is preferred to other group techniques because of its potential to obtain inputs from all members of the group and avoid the dominance of the interview by some vocal individuals in the group usually experienced in other group techniques such as focus groups. It also has a potential to minimise the influence of the researcher and other group dynamics since every member of the group works independently (Lloyd Jones *et al.* 1999). Though now used in different forms, NGT was originally developed and used by Delbecq *et al.* (1975). It involved the following basic procedures: silent generation of ideas, round-robin recording of ideas, discussing the recorded ideas by the members for the purpose of clarification and evaluation, and private voting on the priority ideas. Finally, the group decision is made based on these ratings. In educational research NGT has been used in evaluating students' teaching and learning experiences (Chapple and Murphy 1996), eliciting information from school-aged people (MacPhail 2001) and in evaluating student experiences in higher education (Kiely and Rea-Dickins 2005).

Using Delbecq *et al.* (1975) procedures as guidelines, this study went through the following steps: (1) selecting participants, (2) selecting and preparing the meeting room, (3) sending invitation letters to participants, (4) pilot testing the instrument (5) introduction and presentation of the questions, (6) silent generation of ideas, (7) round-robin recording of ideas, (8) serial discussion of the recorded ideas, (9) evaluation and rating of ideas (10) brief discussion of the ratings, followed by final voting if deemed necessary. These steps are briefly discussed below.

3.3.3 Selecting participants

In this study the sources of qualitative data were the key education stakeholders, namely Ministry of Education and Vocational Training senior education officials, secondary school head-teachers, teachers, students and parents. Since it is practically impossible to involve everybody in a qualitative study, sampling is always necessary. Both purposive and stratified random samplings were used to get the participants from the respective stakeholders' groups. According to Morgan (1988) the ideal group size for group interviews is about 4 - 12 participants since smaller or larger numbers may compromise the efficiency and effectiveness of the group. In this study the target was to have 10 - 12 participants in each group but in order to ensure presence and participation of enough number of participants during the interviews, the number of participants invited to participate in the study was over recruited by about 20% (Morgan 1988) and therefore 15 participants from each group were invited to participate in the group interviews.

In the case of senior education officials, purposive sampling was used to get the participants. The target was to get members of the MoEVT's Management

Committee (MC) to participate in the group interview. There were 15 members of the MC (excluding the Minister and Deputy Minister) and all of them were invited to participate in the study. The members of the MC were preferred because the MC is the highest decision making body and to a large extent their views influence education policy making.

The selection of other stakeholder groups was based on the assumption that effective school leadership results in improved academic performance of students. Therefore, students' results in the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) national examinations over the last three years were used to select 15 schools from which the participants were selected. Stratified random sampling was used to select the 15 schools from which the participants were drawn. In selecting the school the following criteria were used:

i. Urban – rural representation: Schools from Unguja that took the GCSE examinations over the last three years (2003-2005) were grouped into urban and rural schools. This step aimed at ensuring representation from both urban and rural schools.

ii. Performance: The schools from each group were further re-grouped according to their performance in the examinations. The first sub-group consisted of schools which showed improved performance and the other sub-group consisted of schools that showed declined performance in the GCSE examinations over the last three years. For each sub-group three schools were randomly selected. This type of selection was done in order to capture the views of the participants from both 'effective' and 'less effective' schools.

iii. Gender representation: There were only three secondary schools with female head-teachers. All of them were selected in the sample.

Each school has a head-teacher, a school committee that represents the interests of parents and a student government that represents interest of students. In this study, the target was to get views from head-teachers, chairpersons of school committees, presidents of students' governments, and teachers. Head-teachers were selected because of their role as practitioners who exercise the leadership and therefore could have their own views about effective school leadership. Chairpersons (or their representatives) were invited to participate in the study because of their role as parents and also as leaders of school committees that are responsible for guiding and overseeing educational developments in their schools. Presidents of students' governments (or their representatives) were selected because of their role as student leaders and also as 'followers' who experience the leadership from the head-teachers. In the absence of official bodies in schools representing teachers, the head-teachers were requested to nominate one teacher amongst those who had volunteered to participate in the study. Teachers were involved in the study because of their role as 'followers' who experience the leadership from the head-teachers. The number and composition of the participants who finally took part in the study is as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Composition of NGT group interviews

Type of stakeholder group	Number of participants			Remarks
	Male	Female	Total	
Senior officials	8	4	12	One Deputy Principal Secretary, two commissioners, and nine directors of departments
Head-teachers	11	3	14	Nine head-teachers from urban and five from rural areas
Teachers	8	6	14	Eight teaches from urban and six from rural schools
Students	8	5	13	Seven students from urban and six from rural schools (12 were presidents of students' governments and one cabinet minister)
Parents	12	0	12	Seven parents from urban and five from rural schools (11 were chairmen of school committees and one was a member of school committee)

3.3.4 Selecting and preparing the meeting room

The MoEVT headquarters conference room was selected as the venue for the NGT group interviews. The main reasons behind its selection include: (1) it was familiar to the researcher and most of the participants; (2) it was made available free of charge to the researcher; and (3) it location was easily accessible to the participants. The room was fitted with all supplies including flip charts, tapes, markers, writing papers, pencils and a laptop computer. Also two assistants were recruited to help the researcher – one was used to serve refreshments and lunch, and the other was used to write participants' responses on the flip chart and later on entering them in the computer. These staff enabled the researcher to concentrate more on facilitating and moderating the NGT interviews.

3.3.5 Sending invitation letters to the participants

The researcher sent letters of invitation to all 75 potential participants (15 letters for each stakeholder group). Because of the relatively small size of the island, most of the

letters were hand delivered directly to the participants either by the researcher himself or through the head-teachers. In order to motivate the participants, the invitation letter contained key information including the aims and importance of the study, and assurances of anonymity and confidentiality. It also indicated the venue, date and time of the meeting, and assured the participants that refreshments, lunch and transport allowance will be provided. The invitation letter is shown in Appendix 3.1.

3.3.6 Pilot-testing the NGT instrument

The NGT instrument was piloted in two ways. First, three individuals from the would-be participants of each group were requested to answer research questions that will be asked during the group interviews (RQ 1, RQ 2, and RQ 3). The questions were set in both English and Swahili and participants were free to use either language. The aim was to see whether the responses met the researcher's expectations in terms of participants' understanding of the instructions, the number of ideas generated and the clarity of the ideas. Several changes to the questions were made after the results. For example, the question on 'what do you understand by the term effective leadership?' had to be modified because participants struggled to write a definition of 'effective school leadership' and very few ideas were generated. Therefore, the question was expanded further by asking participants to write the criteria they would use to identify a school with effective school leadership and/or the things they would expect to find in a school with effective school leadership. Also, it was found that those who responded in Swahili generated more ideas and therefore in the final instrument the questions were put in both English and Swahili and participants were free to write in the language in which they felt most comfortable. The NGT interview guide is shown in Appendix 3.2.

Secondly, the first NGT group interview that involved MC members was also used to serve as a pilot group. The purpose here was to test procedures such as accuracy of instructions that were read by the researcher, time it would take to complete the various steps of the NGT interviews and familiarity with the voting procedures. The NGT process went as follows:

3.3.6.1 Introduction and presentation of the questions

The researcher introduced himself and gave a warm welcome to all the participants. He thanked them for their attendance and explained briefly the aims and objectives of the study, the questions that were to be addressed, the NGT procedures of generating and rating ideas, and the role of each individual and the group as a whole. Further, he introduced the two assistants and explained their roles to the groups and then asked the members of the group to introduce themselves. The participants were also given opportunity to ask questions or seek clarifications on any issues related to the study.

3.3.6.2 Silent generation of ideas

The researcher read aloud all the three questions (RQ 1, RQ 2, and RQ 3) that were to be dealt with during the session. Every member in the group was given three sheets of A4 paper, each headed with one of the questions. They were then requested to work on the questions silently and independently and to write concisely their ideas in a sentence or phrase form. It took between forty and sixty minutes for all the members of the group to go through all the questions.

3.3.6.3 Round-robin recording of ideas

At this stage, participants read aloud one item in turn in a robin-round fashion and the secretary wrote the ideas on the flip chart. 'Hitchhiking' (allowing members to present new ideas after their turn has passed) was encouraged for members who thought of new ideas and were at the same time asked to record them in their answer sheets. No discussions of the comments were allowed at this stage. The process was repeated until all ideas were exhausted. However, the group checked for any duplication of ideas and edited them accordingly.

3.3.6.4 Serial discussion of ideas

The researcher read each recorded idea in turn and asked the participants if they had any comments or wanted any clarification. Although the members were not allowed to criticise or evaluate any ideas, they were allowed to edit them in order to have grammatically acceptable phrases and also to eliminate any overlaps and duplications. At the same time the secretary entered all the ideas in the computer using the Excel computer programme. The Excel programme was used to facilitate easy computation of the final ratings and rankings. All ideas were printed separately for every question and given to all participants ready for the next step.

3.3.6.5 Evaluating and rating ideas

Participant were asked to evaluate and rate each idea from each question in turn using a five-point Likert scale starting from 1 for the least important to 5 for the most important. As soon as participants finished rating the ideas from one question, they gave their response sheets to the secretary who immediately fed them into the

computer where the Excel programme was ready to compile and compute the total and mean scores for each idea and provided the group ranking for each question automatically.

3.3.6.6 Discussion of the results

A power point was used to display the results on the screen where all the participants were able to see. Also each participant was provided with a printed copy of the results. Comments on the results were invited from the participants to see whether the group's top priorities should be in order provided by the computed rankings or there was need for a new round of voting to produce a better list of priorities.

3.3.7 NGT interviews for other stakeholder groups

The pilot exercise with the MC group went very well and therefore similar NGT procedures (see **3.3.6.1 – 3.3.6.6**) were adopted for use in the remaining stakeholder groups.

3.3.8 Analysis of qualitative data

Miles and Huberman (1994) approach to qualitative data analysis provided a framework for analysing qualitative data in this study. They called their approach 'transcendental realism' and they view analysis as consisting of three concurrent 'flows of activity', namely data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification. It should be noted that these flows of activity form a continuous iterative process. For example, display of data depends upon how data reduction was carried out, and drawing conclusions depends upon how the data was displayed. The three flows of activity are briefly discussed below.

3.3.8.1 Data reduction

This implies reducing the collected qualitative data to manageable proportions. This becomes necessary because of the fact that in many circumstances qualitative data that have been collected may be voluminous, bulky and scattered in different places. It is carried out through several methods including coding, memo writing and preparing session summary sheets (Miles and Huberman 1994; Punch 2005; Robson 2002). In this study data reduction was carried out mainly through session summary sheets and coding. In this study the NGT procedures that were used to collect qualitative data also served as data reduction procedures in at least three ways. First, participants responded to the questions by writing their ideas concisely in sentence or phrase form and these served as summary sheets; secondly all the generated ideas were prioritised by the group members and only those that they perceived to be the most important were taken into account during the analysis and interpretation of data; and thirdly the nature of the research questions made coding simple as the codes corresponded with the answer to the questions. For example, the responses to Research Question 1 were coded 'features/characteristics of effective school' leadership; responses to Research Question 2 were coded 'actions' and responses to Research Question 3 were coded 'competences'. The 'actions' and 'competencies' were further coded using the Segiovanni's five leadership forces (see **4.2.1** and **4.3.1**). It should be noted that it is possible for a particular action or competence to be associated with more than one leadership force.

3.3.8.2 Data display

This involves organising, compressing and assembling information (Punch 2005). According to Robson (2002), data displays are very important because they provide a

researcher with a feel for what the data can tell him/her, what justifiable conclusions can be drawn and what further analyses are called for. Data displays are mainly in the form of matrices and networks (Miles and Huberman 1994). In this study qualitative data were displayed in the form of two matrices. The first matrix involves displaying for each research question the top priorities from each stakeholders group and the second matrix displayed the common themes that were found from all groups. This display helps in understanding to what extent the priorities are similar or different and what issues are considered to be of top priority amongst the various stakeholders' groups (for example see **4.1.1**).

3.3.8.3 Drawing and verifying conclusions

The two matrices discussed above provide the basis for drawing conclusions. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest 13 tactics that may be used to generate meaning from qualitative data. At least three of them were useful in this study. These are: *noting patterns, themes and trends; seeing plausibility*; and *making contrasts and comparisons*. These three tactics were used to study the two matrices mentioned above. In the first matrix, the top priorities from the five stakeholder groups were examined to understand to what extent the priorities are similar or different and what issues were peculiar or considered to be most important amongst the five stakeholder groups. In the second matrix, the focus was on examining the common themes within the top priorities in order to understand to what extent they make 'sense' particularly in developing shared understandings amongst stakeholders.

3.3.8.4 Validity of the findings

The main issue with regard to the conclusions drawn is to what extent the conclusions are valid and correct, that is, to what extent the conclusions could be verified. Miles and Huberman (1994) provide 13 tactics that may be used for verifying the findings. At least three of them were employed in this study, namely, *checking for representativeness, triangulation, and getting feedback from the informants*. In the case of *checking for representativeness*, the stratified random sampling used to select the 15 schools provided the informants who represented both effective and less effective schools, as well as male and females from both urban and rural areas. With respect to *triangulation*, this study used a mixed method approach whereby qualitative data were used to prepare an instrument that was used to collect quantitative data which enabled the researcher to compare and confirm the findings with larger targeted populations. In this respect the verification process was already built in within the data collection processes. In the case of *getting feedback from the informants*, the NGT processes assured that the informants in each group rated and ranked their responses and the final priority lists were discussed and endorsed by all the participants from each group. Also original written responses of the informants are available for cross referencing.

3.4 Phase 2

This study centred on examining the meaning of effective school leadership and understanding the priorities for professional learning of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar. Therefore it was felt necessary that the qualitative findings were confirmed and generalised to two target groups, namely the secondary school head-teachers because of their role as practitioners who are required to exercise effective

school leadership; and the MoEVT senior officials because of their role as policymakers who are required to formulate policies that will facilitate effective school leadership. Similarly, the two stakeholder groups play an important role in assessing professional learning needs and in developing and implementing professional development programmes of secondary school head-teachers. In this respect the results from the Phase 1 of this study were used to build the instrument that was used to collect quantitative data in Phase 2 of the study which focussed on the remaining four research questions (RQ 4, RQ 5, RQ 6, and RQ 7).

3.4.1 Method and procedures

Several methods are available for collecting quantitative data. These include experiments, secondary analysis and surveys. The purpose of Phase 2 of this research was to confirm and generalise the results from a sample of stakeholders to larger target populations, namely, senior education officials and secondary school head-teachers. Babbie (1990) contends that survey research is the most appropriate strategy if one wants to generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about the characteristic, attitude, or behaviour of this population. Therefore, survey research was employed to collect the quantitative data desired in this study. The following procedures were used in carrying out the survey: selecting the participants, selecting and constructing the survey instrument, piloting the instrument, and distributing and collecting the instrument. These procedures are briefly discussed below.

3.4.1.1 Selecting participants

As already noted the target populations in the questionnaire survey were secondary school head-teachers and MoEVT's senior education officials. When the study was conducted there were 101 secondary school head-teachers and 66 senior officials. Therefore, sampling was not necessary as the number of respondents was felt to be manageable and all the secondary school head-teachers and the senior officials were earmarked to participate in the study.

3.4.1.2 Selecting and constructing the survey instrument

Several instruments are available for use in survey research. These instruments include face to face interviews, telephone interviews, internet surveys and self-administered questionnaires (Denscombe 2003). This study employed self-administered questionnaires to collect the desired information. Self-administered questionnaires are those that respondents answer questions by themselves without the presence or aid of the researcher. They are also referred to as self-completion questionnaires (Bryman 2004). Compared to other survey instruments, a self-administered questionnaire was found to be more advantageous and convenient. In addition to its potential to have wider and inclusive coverage, self-administered questionnaires are also efficient in providing large amounts of data at a relatively low cost and short time. They are also anonymous and therefore may encourage frankness and a higher response rate (Robson 2003; Denscombe 2003). Despite these advantages, several disadvantages are associated with the use of self-administered questionnaires. For example, Denscombe (2003: 28) warns that "the emphasis on wide and inclusive coverage limits the degree to which the researcher can check on the accuracy of the responses". Other disadvantages include possibility of low

response rates, ambiguity in and misunderstanding of the survey questions and the respondents may not treat the exercise seriously (Robson 2002). Possible measures were taken to minimise these disadvantages. The measures included face to face discussions with the respondents, piloting the instrument, hand-delivery and collection of the instrument, and having other people going through the instrument including my supervisor. The details of these measures are discussed in section **3.4.1.3** and **3.4.1.4** below. Also when designing the questionnaire, Robson's (2002: 241) advice that "the survey questions ... be designed to help achieve the goals of the research and, in particular, to answer the research questions" was followed fully.

The results from Phase 1 were used to construct a questionnaire for head-teachers and senior officials. The questionnaire consisted of two main parts. The first part aimed at getting information regarding the profile of the respondents such as age, sex, educational and professional qualifications, job experience, the type of their school (whether urban or rural) in case of the head-teachers and designation in the case of the senior officials. The second part of the questionnaire constituted several sections arranged to reflect the research questions, and consisted a list of phrases/statements that respondents were asked to rate in order to get the perceptions of their priorities on the several issues being investigated. At the end of each section, extra space was provided so as to give the respondents an opportunity to add to the list and rate any phrases/statements which might have been overlooked or not included in the priority lists obtained through the NGT. To facilitate triangulation, the ratings were to be done by using two methods: by asking the respondents to pick from the list 10 phrases/statements which they perceived to be the most important and rank them in order of priority of importance starting with 1 for the highest priority and ending with

10 for the lowest priority (Method 1); and by using a Likert scale whereby respondents were asked to rate each statement/phrase starting with 1 for the least important to 5 for the most important after which descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages and mean values) were used to analyse and get the final results (Method 2) (also see **3.4.1.3, 3.4.1.4** and **3.4.1.5**).

3.4.1.3 Piloting the questionnaire

The importance of piloting questionnaires cannot be overemphasised. Bell (2002: 167) warned:

> No matter how busy you are, all data collecting instruments have to be piloted. You may have consulted everybody about everything, but it's only when a group similar to your main population completes your questionnaire and provides feedback that you know for sure that all is well.

In this study, pilot-testing of the questionnaire was done in several ways. First, two colleagues were informally asked to read through the questionnaire and provide their comments particularly with respect to wording in order to check if the questions were clear, simple and unambiguous (Robson 2002). Then the questionnaire was forwarded to the supervisor who particularly commented on the number of items that respondents were asked to prioritise. He advised that the number be reduced from fifteen to ten. Finally, as suggested by Bell above, five prospective respondents from each group were asked to complete the questionnaire and to give any comments they might have. When interviewed by the researcher, some of them commented that they had some difficulties on understanding 'Method 1' and by asking them to select only ten items they felt that the method was too restrictive. The main problem noticed when the questionnaires were analysed was that some respondents only ticked the ten priorities without prioritising them. Others prioritised some phrases without ticking the ten top priorities. These deficiencies were noted for clarification during the

meetings between the researcher and the participants. However some of the respondents experienced no difficulties in completing the questionnaire and used both rating methods perfectly. Further analysis of the questionnaires that were completed accurately revealed that at least six items from the ten priorities obtained through the two ranking methods were similar though they ranked differently. The researcher realised that it was advantageous and possible to use both rating systems but there was need to sensitise the respondents so that they become well acquainted with the two systems. The sensitisation was done when the researcher had another opportunity to meet the head-teachers and senior officials in one of their meetings as discussed in the relevant section below. The final version of the questionnaire is as shown in Appendix 3.3

3.4.1.4 Distributing and collecting back the questionnaire

Once again the researcher exploited one of the meetings of the secondary school head-teachers and some senior officials both in Unguja and Pemba to talk about the questionnaire survey and to request them to participate in the study. For Unguja this was the researcher's second meeting after the first one that took place a month earlier. For Pemba this was the first contact with prospective respondents. The questionnaires were hand delivered to all the participants. All the questionnaires were accompanied with a letter of transmittal (see Appendix 3.4) which indicated the aims of the survey, the importance of the study, the assurances of confidentiality, the date and place where the questionnaire should be returned and an appeal that encouraged them to complete the questionnaire and to return it in time. They were asked to go through the questionnaire and ask any questions they might have. All the issues raised were clarified. Because most of the respondents visit the Ministry's offices at least once

every two weeks, they were requested to hand deliver them to the Director of Secondary Education in Unguja and to the Officer in Charge of Education in Pemba, who later on hand delivered the completed questionnaires to the researcher. Table 3.5 indicates the response rates. In short, the response rates for both groups were very good.

Table 3.5: Response rate of the questionnaires

Respondents	Number of questionnaires distributed	Number of questionnaires returned	Response rate %
Senior officials	66	56	84.8%
Head-teachers	101	91	90.1%

However, after checking the accuracy of responses in the returned questionnaires, it was observed that in the empty spaces provided in the questionnaire (see **3.4.1.2**) the respondents did not provide any substantial data that warranted further content analysis. Therefore all information used in analysing quantitative data was derived from the original questionnaire instrument. Furthermore, for practical reasons (time factor, required length of the dissertation) the researcher decided to analyse data that were collected through Method 2 only. This is because during the pilot phase most participants preferred Method 2 and it also produced more promising results than Method 1.

3.4.2 Analysis of the quantitative data

The SPSS computer software package was used to compute the descriptive statistics required to analyse the quantitative data. Frequencies and percentages were used to

analyse the first part of the questionnaires that aimed at getting factual information with regard to the profile of the secondary school head-teachers and the senior officials. Table 3.6 presents briefly the profile of the participants.

Table 3.6: Profile of targeted participants

Feature	Senior officials	Secondary school head-teachers
Composition	Deputy Principal Secretary 1 Commissioners 2 Directors 11 Regional Education Officers 5 District education officers 10 Teacher-centre coordinators 10 Heads of special units 3 Secondary education inspectors 12 Officer in charge of MoEVT, Pemba 1 Coordinators of departments, Pemba 11	Rural secondary schools 61 or about 67.0% Urban secondary schools 30 or about 33.0%
Gender	Women 18.2% Men 81.8%	Women 12.8% Men 87.2%
Age group	Under 50 years old 32.1 % Above 50 years old 67.9%	Under 50 years old 64.0% Above 50 years old 36%
Educational qualification	University degrees or equivalent 41.1% Diploma in education 56.1% Certificate in education 1.8%	University degree 14.0% Diploma in education 76.7% Certificate in education 9.3%
Past job experience	Headship experience 77%	Deputy headship experience 81.4% Teaching experience of more than eight years 92%
Formal training in secondary school leadership and management	Not applicable	About 35% had formal training for primary headship.

Frequencies, percentages, mean values and standard deviations were used to analyse the second part of the questionnaire that involved rating various items using Likert scales. Leithwood and Jantzi (2003: 203) discuss the pros and cons of using Likert scales:

> Likert and Likert-like scales are the most widely used attitude scale type in the social sciences. They are relatively easy to construct, can deal with attitudes of more than one dimension and tend to be highly reliable. These scales are not without their limits. For example, although this is an ordinal scale..., one cannot assume that differences between points are identical. ... Nonetheless the

> consistency with which respondents use the scale (its reliability) make it a useful measurement tool".

According to Mulford *et al.* (2003: 69) "one advantage of Likert scales is that the data generated can be manipulated at nominal, ordinal, and/or interval levels of measurement". Consequently, mean values were used to rank the items in order of priority of importance or training (depending upon the nature of the items) and those which scored at least 4.0 were considered to be the most important. However because of the sensitivity of the mean to extreme values, items that scored '5' on the Likert scale from at least 50% of the respondents were also considered to be most important. In case of similar mean values, items with higher percentages of '5' scores were considered to be more important. Furthermore, similarities and differences in responses between senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) were noted and discussed, and conclusions were made accordingly.

3.4.3 Validity and reliability of the quantitative data

In carrying out any study, the researcher must ensure that the data collected reflect what is true and accurate, and the conclusions drawn are credible and of high integrity. The main challenge for the research therefore is to ensure that the instrument used to collect the data measures accurately what is supposed to be measured (i.e. to ensure its validity) and do so consistently over time (i.e. to ensure its reliability). Although there are various ways to establish validity (e.g. content or face validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity) and reliability (e.g. test-retest reliability and internal consistency—coefficient alpha) of the instrument (Punch 2004), this study used face validity and coefficient alpha to establish the validity and reliability of the self-administered questionnaire respectively. According to Bryman (2004: 73) "at the very minimum, a researcher who develops a new measure should

establish that it has face validity—that is, that the measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question". In this study face or content validity was established by asking three experts including my supervisor to review the content of the questionnaire followed by a pilot study. With respect to reliability, SPSS was used to compute the coefficient alpha for each construct in the questionnaire, (features/characteristics of effective school leadership, head-teachers' actions for effective school leadership, and head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership) and for both groups of respondents. The results are as shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Internal reliability coefficients of the questionnaire items

Construct	Items in the questionnaire	Coefficient alpha (senior officials)	Coefficient alpha (head-teachers)
Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Items with codes E1 – E25	0.88	0.89
Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Items with codes A1 -- A50	0.97	0.98
Head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership	Items with codes C1 – C35	0.95	0.96
Head-teachers' training priorities	Items with codes C1 – C35	0.93	0.95

It is evident in Table 3.7 that the coefficient alpha values were far above the minimum accepted levels of internal reliability which is about 0.80 (Bryman: 2004).

3.5 Interpretation phase: Comparing qualitative and quantitative findings

Qualitative and quantitative findings were compared in order to assess the extent to which the quantitative and qualitative approaches complemented each other. Qualitative findings that were confirmed or validated by the quantitative findings

were considered to be most robust and therefore warranted further discussion. Any differences between the senior officials and head-teachers with respect to the confirmation or validation of the qualitative data were noted and discussed accordingly.

3.6 Researcher's role and ethical issues

In conducting any study the researcher has among other things two major roles to play, namely negotiating access and being ethically mindful. This study was conducted in the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training where the researcher has been its chief executive for more than 17 years, that is he was a 'backyard' (Creswell 2003) or an internal researcher. As a senior official, the researcher was very familiar with the way the organisation works. He knew all the key contacts and the procedures that one has to go through to get the necessary permissions and to gain access to the various 'gatekeepers' and intended participants. Once the proposal was cleared by the necessary authorities at the University of Bristol, and while still in the UK, the researcher contacted some members of the Management Committee (MC) of MoEVT in Zanzibar by telephone and e-mail in order to share and exchange ideas about the research project. All of them were excited about the project and thought it to be timely. The researcher submitted officially his request to conduct the research through a letter to the Acting Principal Secretary of MoEVT and received a positive reply (see Appendices 3.5 and 3.6). While in Zanzibar, he exploited the opportunity of the weekly briefing sessions of the MoEVT's MC to explain to its members the aims, objectives and the significance of the project and asked them their full support and participation. Also, he exploited the opportunity of one of the regular monthly meetings of secondary school head-teachers and other MoEVT's senior education

officials including regional and district education officers, inspectors and teacher centre coordinators to talk about the project and asked their full cooperation by participating fully in the research. Furthermore, the researcher requested the head-teachers to support him further by explaining the project to the would-be participants including teachers, students and members of school committee in their schools. In short, there was an overwhelming support for the project and all head-teachers and senior officials promised to play their part.

Despite the obvious advantages of working as a 'backyard' researcher (Glesne and Peshkin 1992) such as having intimate knowledge of the context of the study and proper understanding of the how the organisation 'really works' (Robson 2002), there are also several challenges and ethical dilemmas particularly those related to power relations and maintaining objectivity in reporting the findings and drawing conclusions (Creswell 2003; Robson 2002). Referring to a particular research carried out in one school, Busher (2002: 81) reports:

> The perceived organisational status and power of the internal researchers raised issues about the extent to which this influenced participants' decisions on what information to give for organisational and research purposes and how they presented it. In turn, this challenged the trustworthiness of the data given since some participants might have been more willing to talk to the researcher, because they perceived her/him as understanding their school situation, and others less, because they feared what the researcher might do with any information given. It also raised different questions about the quality of data gathered, as well as the ethical position of the researcher, since some participants might have tried to use the researcher as a channel to pursue other political/managerial agendas in the school.

Busher's remarks serve as a warning to any internal researcher and therefore the researcher in this study took all the necessary measures to ensure that the standard ethical principles of doing research were never compromised. Some measures were built within the methodology used in this research. For example, the decision to adopt a mixed methods approach through the use of NGT and self-administered

questionnaires as instruments of data collection has minimised to a great extent any direct researcher's influence. Unlike other methods such as individual interviews or observations where the researcher's presence may interfere with the informants/respondents decisions, the nature of NGT and self-administered questionnaires keeps a distance between the researcher and the respondents. In the NGT interviews, informants work independently and rate and rank their ideas independently, which are then collated to get a group decision. It is difficult under these circumstances for a researcher to influence any decision. Furthermore, the use of self-administered questionnaires not only relieved some participants from a taboo of communicating directly with their boss, but also assured the respondents of their freedom to make own independent decisions.

With respect to power relations, one pertinent issue that the researcher had to address was to clear the impression that participation in this study could be regarded by some participants as an order from the 'top'. The researcher addressed this issue through face to face meetings with the participants where he explained in detail the aims, objectives and significance of the study, why their participation was of vital importance, and how the anticipated findings would contribute to the improvement of the quality of education in the country. The researcher asked the participants to see their involvement in the study as a normal consultative process through which their Ministry gathers views and ideas for the purpose of addressing a particular issue or problem. Another related aspect with regard to power relations issue was to what extent the participants would be free to express their views honestly and frankly in front of or to complete questionnaires from their 'boss'. The researcher was not worried too much about this because he always treated his subordinates as colleagues

and had experienced many occasions where they discussed many burning issues openly, honestly and frankly. However, during the meetings, he gave the needed confidence by assuring the participants that they were free to air their views since it was only through their frankness and honesty that the research would meet the intended objectives.

In addition to addressing the challenges related to power relations, the researcher took special measures to address other anticipated ethical issues particularly those related to informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality (Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007). With respect to these ethical issues, the researcher used the face-to-face meetings and letters of transmittal to ensure that the participants had clear and accurate information about all aspects of the study and to assure them of anonymity. Also he ensured that the self-administered questionnaires did not have any identifiable labels such as codes, names of participants or their institutions. Furthermore, the researcher assured the participants that he would not personally collect the completed questionnaires to ensure that he had no idea of who returned a particular questionnaire.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has presented the methodological framework for the study. It discussed the various research approaches used in educational research and argued that this study should adopt a sequential exploratory mixed methods strategy using NGT and self-administered questionnaire as instruments for data collection. It also presented the overall design of the study including procedures that were involved in data collection and analysis, addressing reliability and validity issues, negotiating access

and enforcing required ethical standards. The presented methodological framework was instrumental for collecting and analysing data that resulted in the findings which are reported in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study. As noted in the previous chapter, this mixed methods research focused on seven research questions and was carried out in two sequential phases. The first phase (Phase 1) was qualitative in nature and focussed on the first three research questions (RQ 1, RQ 2 and RQ 3). The second phase (Phase 2) was quantitative in nature and used the findings from Phase 1 to construct a questionnaire that was used to answer the remaining four research questions (RQ 4, RQ 5, RQ 6 and RQ 7). In order to compare and contrast the findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases, the results are presented thematically rather than in the order of the research questions. The chapter starts in **4.1** with the presentation of the findings on features/characteristics of effective school leadership (RQ 1 and RQ 4) followed in **4.2** by the presentation of the findings on head-teachers' actions for effective school leadership (RQ 2 and RQ 5). Section **4.3** presents the findings on head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership (RQ 3 and RQ 6). The findings on the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers (RQ 7) are presented in **4.4** followed in **4.5** by a summary of the major issues covered in this chapter.

4.1 Features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Leadership lacks precise definition and therefore there is no common recipe for effective school leadership. What is perceived to be effective school leadership may vary from one context to another. Therefore it was very important for this research to

explore the meaning of effective school leadership from the perspectives of the key stakeholders. It was also important to find out how the stakeholders' perceptions are viewed by the policymakers (MoEVT senior officials) and practitioners (secondary school head-teachers). These issues are explored through RQ 1 and RQ 4.

4.1.1 Research Question 1 (RQ1)

What do key education stakeholders including secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, parents, students and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) understand by the concept of "effective school leadership"?

The NGT group interviews were used to get the perceptions of the various stakeholder groups (senior officials, head-teachers, teachers, students and parents) with regard to what they considered to be the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership (see **3.3**). The responses generated from the various stakeholder groups were recorded in the form of concise phrases/statements and coded as *features/characteristics* of effective school leadership. In order to get the various groups' priorities, the participants were asked individually to indicate the degree of importance they attach to each feature/characteristic of effective school leadership by rating them using a five-point Likert scale which ranged from 1 for the least to 5 for the most important feature/characteristic of effective school leadership respectively. The EXCEL computer software programme was used to compute total scores which were then used to rank the features/characteristics of effective school leadership from every group in order of importance with the highest and least scores indicating the most and least important features/characteristics of effective school leadership. The number of responses, the ratings, the total and mean scores and the

rankings are as shown in Appendices 4.1(a-e). Consequently the group priorities were determined by taking median values of the total scores. However, because several items had similar median values the number of items identified to be most important was more than 50% of the original least. Appendix 4.1(f) shows these most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership ranked ordered according to their perceived importance.

Special attention is drawn to the first row of Appendix 4.1(f) which shows the features/characteristics of effective school leadership that were accorded highest degree of importance by the various stakeholder groups. While both the senior officials and head-teachers' groups accorded '*good academic performance of students'* the highest degree of importance, the teachers' and students' groups perceived '*participation of staff, students and parents in decision making'* and *'adherence to rules and regulations'* to be their first and foremost features/characteristics of effective school leadership respectively. The corresponding feature/characteristic of effective school leadership for the parents' group was '*transparency in carrying out school activities*'. These results may have implications for effective school leadership and training and development programmes for head-teachers since different stakeholders may perceive effective school leadership differently. These issues are explored further in **5.3.1**.

Further inspection of Appendix 4.1(f) also reveals that the various features/characteristics of effective school leadership could be categorised into several common themes as follows:

- focus on improving academic performance of students

- involvement and participation of stakeholders in school activities
- presence of school plans and achievement of desired goals
- shared leadership
- order and discipline
- high commitment of staff and students
- cooperation and unity amongst stakeholders
- effective and efficient utilisation of resources
- transparency and accountability
- availability of important school records and information
- presence of shared vision and mission

The themes and their corresponding features/characteristics are displayed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Emergent themes from the stakeholder groups' perceptions of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Theme	Stakeholder groups				
	Senior officials	**Head-teachers**	**Teachers**	**Students**	**Parents**
1. Focus on improving academic performance of students	Visible school growth and academic performance Conducive teaching and learning environment Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula;	Good academic performance of students Clean school environment	Good performance of students in examinations	Good academic performance of students Presence of special strategies for improving students academic performance Presence of extra-curricular activities	Good academic performance of students High expectations of students and staff

	Focus on improving school outcomes			Good attendance of staff and students	
2. Involvement and participation of stakeholders in school activities	Participation of stakeholders in decision making; Strong community involvement and participation in school activities	Involvement and participation of stakeholders in school improvement programmes	Participation of staff, students and parents in decision making	Involvement of staff, students and parents in planning and implementing school goals	Full involvement and participation of staff, students and parents in decision making
3. Presence of school plans and achievement of desired goals	Presence of school improvement plans Emphasis is on attainment of agreed goals and objectives	Presence of school action plans Effective implementation of education policy at school level Achievement of school goals as desired by the school, community and state	Availability of and effective implementation of school plans; Achievement of agreed goals and objectives	Good implementation of planned activities	Effective implementation of planned activities Realistic school development plans
4. Shared leadership	Delegation of power and responsibilities	Sharing responsibilities and delegation of power and authority	Sharing responsibilities and delegation of power and authority	Sharing responsibilities and delegating power to staff and students	Collective leadership Delegation of power and authority to lower levels including staff and students
5. Order and discipline	Good discipline of staff and students	Good discipline of students and teachers	Presence of order and discipline; Agreed rules and regulations are followed	Good discipline of students and staff; Adherence to rules and regulations Alternative system of disciplining students instead of	Good discipline of staff and students Adherence to rules and regulations

				corporal punishment	
6. High commitment of staff and students	Competent, committed and motivated staff	Teachers working without close supervision	High commitment of staff and students	Committed and motivated staff and students; Teachers reporting in classes in time	Motivated and committed staff Staff working without close supervision
7. Cooperation and unity amongst stakeholders	Cooperative spirit and teamwork Few complaints from staff, students and parents	Cooperation and unity amongst staff, students, school committee and parents	Lack of conflicts amongst various groups Good cooperation among staff, students, parents and the community Staff working in teams	Good cooperation amongst leaders, staff and students	Existence of harmony and unity Good cooperation between school, school committee and the community Absence of or very few disputes/ conflicts
8. Effectiveness and efficiency in utilisation of school funds	Proper management of school resources	Effective management and use of school funds to improve learning outcomes	Effective control and utilisation of school funds		Effective and efficient utilisation of school funds
9. Transparency and accountability		Transparency in the use of school funds	Transparency in carrying out school activities		Transparency in carrying out school activities Leadership which is accountable to stakeholders
10. Presence of key school records and information	Presence of records and time table for various school activities	Availability of key school records and time table of various activities	Availability of important school records and information		
11. Presence of vision and mission	Presence of shared vision and mission				

Source: Appendix 4.1(f).

It is clear from Table 4.1 that there are features/characteristics of effective school leadership that cut across at least three stakeholder groups as follows:

- Good academic performance of students
- Involvement and participation of staff, students and parents in decision making
- Presence of school plans and achievement of desired goals
- Delegation and sharing of responsibility
- Good discipline of staff and students
- Committed staff
- Cooperation and unity amongst stakeholders
- Effective and efficient utilisation of school funds
- Transparency and accountability
- Availability of key school records

These findings indicate that there are some shared understandings amongst the stakeholder groups on what they perceive to be the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership. It should also be noted that only the senior officials group identified the '*presence of shared vision and mission'* as one of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership.

The extent to which the various stakeholder groups' perceptions of the features/characteristics are confirmed by the general populations particularly those of senior officials (policymakers) and the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) is explored through RQ 4.

4.1.2 Research Question 4 (RQ4)

What do secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as the most important characteristics/features of effective school leadership?

Of the 25 features/characteristics of effective school leadership that were accorded high priority by the five stakeholder groups (see Appendix 4.1(f) and items with codes E1 – E25 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.3), the respondents (66 senior officials and 101 secondary school head-teachers) were asked to rate them in order of importance using a five point Likert scale (ranging from 1 for least important to 5 for most important). SPSS computer software programme was used to compute the frequencies, percentages, mean values and standard deviations. Mean values were used to rank the features/characteristics in order of importance with highest and lowest values indicating most and least important features/characteristics of effective school leadership. The results are as shown in Appendices 4.2 (a-b). The respondents' most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership were taken to be those with mean values of at least 4.0 and/or scored '5' points of the Likert scale from at least 50% of the respondents (see **3.4.2**). The results are as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Senior officials' (policymakers') and head-teachers' (practitioners') perceptions of the most important characteristics/features of effective school leadership in order of priority of importance

Rank	Senior officials		Head-teachers	
	Features/ characteristics	**Mean value**	**Features/ characteristics**	**Mean value**
1	Good academic performance of students/good examination results	4.77	Good academic performance of students/good examination results	4.84
2	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	4.62	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance	4.60
3	High commitment of staff	4.61	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	4.60
4	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals	4.53	Good discipline of students and staff	4.51
5	Cooperative spirit and team work	4.50	Cooperative spirit and team work.	4.47
6	Presence of shared vision and mission	4.42	Good attendance of staff and students	4.43
7	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority among staff and students	4.39	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals	4.37
8	Good attendance of staff and students	4.38	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of power and authority among staff and students	4.34
9	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance	4.35	High commitment of staff	4.28
10	Focus on improving learning outcomes	4.31	Community involvement and participation in school activities	4.23
11	Good discipline of students and staff	4.27	Effective and efficient utilisation of funds	4.20
12	Community involvement and participation in school	4.23	Availability of important school records	4.20

	activities			
13	Availability of important school records	4.23	Focus on improving learning outcomes	4.10
14	Effective and efficient utilisation of school funds	4.16	Transparency in conducting school business	4.02
15	Transparency in conducting school business	4.12	Harmony and unity among staff and students	4.01
16	Harmony and unity amongst staff and students	4.04		
17	Participation of staff and students in decision making	4.04		

Attention is called to the first row of Table 4.2 where it is observed that '*good academic performance*' of students received the highest mean values and lowest standard deviations (also see Appendices 4.2a and 4.2b) from both groups of respondents (senior officials and the head-teachers). These findings suggest that both the senior officials and secondary school head-teachers have very firm belief that good academic performance of students should be the first and major occupation of school leadership.

Furthermore, despite the difference in order of the priorities, as shown in Table 4.3 below, there are features/characteristics that were perceived to be most important by both groups and others were perceived to be so by only one group. It is interesting to note that all the features/characteristics that were perceived to be most important by the head-teachers were also believed to be so by the senior officials.

Table 4.3: Similarities and differences between senior officials and head-teachers on their perceptions of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features/characteristics identified by both senior officials and head-teachers	Features/characteristics identified by senior officials only	Features/characteristics identified by head-teachers only
• Good academic performance of students • Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula • Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance • Focus on improving learning outcomes • Community involvement and participation in school activities • Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals • Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority among staff and students • Good discipline of students and staff • High commitment of staff • Cooperative spirit and team work • Harmony and unity amongst staff and students • Effective and efficient utilisation of funds • Availability of important school records • Transparency in conducting school business	• Participation of staff and students in decision making • Presence of shared vision and mission	Nil

The similarities in the findings suggest that there is an agreement between policymakers (senior officials) and practitioners (secondary school head-teachers) on what they perceive to be the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership. The differences however may be a potential source of tensions between the two groups. These issues are explored further in **5.3.1**.

4.2 Head-teachers' actions for effective school leadership

The most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership that were identified by the stakeholder groups and confirmed by the policymakers and practitioners will be evident in schools only if school leaders carry out certain actions. These actions are explored through RQ 2 and RQ 5.

4.2.1 Research Question 2 (RQ 2)

What do these stakeholders think secondary school head-teachers should do in order to demonstrate effective school leadership?

NGT group interviews were used to get stakeholder perceptions of what head-teachers should do in order to demonstrate effective school leadership (see **3.3**). The responses from the various stakeholder groups (senior officials, head-teachers, teachers, students and parents) were recorded in the form of simple phrases or statements and coded as *head-teachers' actions* for demonstrating effective school leadership. The various groups' priorities were determined by employing procedures similar to those used for RQ 1 (see section **4.1.1**). The results for each stakeholder group are as shown in Appendices 4.3(a-e). Appendix 4.3(f) displays the head-teachers' actions that were considered to be of high priority by the five stakeholder groups.

Reference is made to the first row of Appendix 4.3(f) which displays head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership that were accorded highest priority by the five stakeholder groups. It is obvious that there are both differences and similarities amongst stakeholder groups. The senior officials group believe that if head-teachers want to be effective they should first *'articulate a shared vision'*. This finding is consistent with the earlier results in which the senior officials also singled out *'presence of shared vision and mission'* as one of the most critical features/characteristics of effective school leadership. However, the head-teachers' group thought that the major occupation of head-teachers should be to *'monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans'*, a view which is supported by the parents'

group who urge head-teachers to *'supervise closely the implementation of school plans'*. The situation is different for teachers who think that head-teachers should first strive to *'have good cooperation with staff, students and parents'*; and for students who urge head-teachers to '*share responsibility and delegate power and authority to staff and students'* if they want to exercise effective school leadership. These findings once again suggest that school leadership is a complex process, an issue which is further explored in **5.3.1**.

In order to understand which leadership forces are prevalent in the mindsets of the Zanzibar key education stakeholders, the head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership were coded and categorised according to the Sergiovanni's (1991) five leadership forces namely, technical leadership force, human leadership force, educational leadership force, symbolic leadership force and cultural leadership force (see **2.4**). The results are as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Emergent themes from the stakeholder groups' perceptions of the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership coded according to the Sergiovanni's five leadership forces

Theme	Stakeholder groups				
	Senior officials	**Head-teachers**	**Teachers**	**Students**	**Parents**
Technical leadership force	Develop effective organisational structure to facilitate teaching and learning Mobilise more resources from non-traditional sources Maintain discipline and order Understand education and other relevant laws Keep pace with the developments in science and technology particularly the use of ICT Develop school improvement plans	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities Believe in the rule of law Be ready to be accountable Be transparent particularly in the use of resources	Control and use resources effectively and efficiently Develop a system of managing school records Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds Develop realistic and sustainable school improvement plans Report regularly to stakeholders on school revenues and expenditures Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT Govern according to established rules and regulations Develop realistic plans	Supervise closely the implementation of school plans and activities Be analytical, innovative and ready to bring about changes Work according to established rules and regulations Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders
Human leadership force	Involve all stakeholders in decision making	Involve staff and students in developing school improvement programmes	Have good cooperation with staff, students and parents	Share responsibility and delegate power and authority	Participate in community activities

	Be tolerant, understanding, honest and transparent Looking after and solving problems of staff and students Delegate power and authority Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	Identify and solve problems facing staff and students Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students Be human, kind, tolerant, good listener, courageous, self confident, ready to accept criticism and take advice Be fair in making decisions Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired goals	Involve the school community in developing and implementing school plans Be courageous in accepting criticism and ready to take risk Be tolerant, trustful, transparent and ready to be accountable Share responsibility and delegate power and authority to staff and students Ensure justice is done by being confident, fair and firm in making decisions Use as much as possible democratic principles in reaching key decisions Seek and encourage ideas from others aimed at bringing about school improvement Recognise sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to act accordingly	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour Foster cooperation between staff, students and parents Recognise and solve problems faced by staff and students Recognise talents of staff and students and use them effectively; Have good discipline; Must be patient, fair, considerate, transparent and ready to accept criticism Foster cohesion and unity amongst members of the school community	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement Be very trustful and firm in decision making Believe in democratic principles Ensure good cooperation between staff and students Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks Encourage views and ideas from staff, students and parents; Make use of the talents of staff and students Involve staff, students and parents in decision making

Educational leadership force	Supervise closely the teaching learning processes Ensure availability of teaching/ learning materials Manage the teaching/ learning process Understand different curriculum perspectives Understand education policy and be able to interpret it at school level Ensure effective and efficient use of time allocated for teaching and learning	Ensure teaching and learning takes place according to prescribed curricula Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise Ensure staff are performing their duties accordingly	Have high expectations of staff and students Develop and institutionalise a system of staff development Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment	Monitor closely the performance of staff Ensure availability of teaching/ learning materials Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils Promote life long learning Encourage and develop extra curricular activities	Have high expectations of staff and students Ensure staff are performing their duties accordingly Develop a system of professional development of staff and him/herself Develop a system of remedial teaching for needy students Understand various teaching/ learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner centred methods)
Symbolic leadership force	Articulate and communicate a shared vision	Be exemplary in carrying out school activities	Be exemplary by participating actively in school improvement activities Recognise and reward hardworking staff and students	Must be a good role model (lead by example)	
Cultural leadership force	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil

Source: Appendix 4.3 (f).

It is evident from Table 4.4 that all the stakeholder groups identified head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership that could be associated mainly with the top of the three Sergiovanni's leadership forces namely, technical, human, and educational forces. There are also few head-teachers' actions that could be associated with symbolic leadership but there was none that could be associated with cultural leadership. These findings suggest that the stakeholder groups associate effective school leadership more with technical, human and educational leadership forces than with symbolic and cultural leadership forces implying that effective school leadership is associated more with management (transactional leadership) than leadership (transformational leadership). These issues are discussed further in **5.3.2.**

Also evident from Table 4.4 are several head-teachers' actions that appear to be common or closely related across at least three stakeholder groups. These actions, for example, include:

- Develop, monitor and evaluate school plans and activities
- Govern according to established rules and regulations.
- Involve the key stakeholders in decision making
- Delegate power and share responsibilities
- Ensure that staff are performing their duties effectively

These findings suggest that there are shared understandings amongst stakeholder groups on what head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership.

The extent to which the findings from the stakeholder groups could be generalised to education policymakers (senior officials) and practitioners (secondary school head-teachers) is the focus of Research Question 5 in the following section.

4.2.2 Research Question 5 (RQ 5)

What actions do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?

The findings from RQ 2 were used to construct a questionnaire that was administered to relevant senior officials and all secondary school head-teachers. Out of 50 head-teachers' actions from the five stakeholder groups (see Appendix 4.3f and items with codes A1 to A50 of the questionnaire in Appendix 3.3), the respondents (senior officials and head-teachers) were asked to rate them in order of importance using procedures similar to those discussed in **4.1.2**. The results are as shown in Appendices 4.4 (a-b). Similar procedures and criteria employed for RQ 4 were used to get the actions that the two groups of respondents perceived them to be most important for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership (see **4.1.2**).

The results are as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Senior officials' (policymakers) and head-teachers' (practitioners) perceptions of the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership arranged in order of priority of importance

Rank	Senior officials	Mean value	Head-teachers	Mean value
1	Ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula	4.75	Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively	4.65
2	Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively	4.68	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals	4.65
3	Manage teaching and learning processes	4.62	Have a good discipline	4.55

4	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals	4.60	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority	4.53
5	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level	4.57	Ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula	4.51
6	Supervise closely the teaching learning process	4.56	Ensures availability of teaching/learning materials	4.50
7	Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials	4.54	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	4.49
8	Ensures clean, safe and conducive learning environment	4.47	Supervise closely the teaching/learning processes	4.47
9	Encourage transparency and accountability	4.45	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	4.45
10	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	4.43	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds	4.40
11	Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks	4.40	Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks	4.38
12	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods, etc.)	4.40	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods, etc.)	4.38
13	Have a good discipline	4.39	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level	4.37
14	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	4.38	Be a good role model	4.33
15	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	4.37	Ensures clean, safe and conducive learning environment	4.31
16	Be a good role model	4.37	Encourage transparency and accountability	4.28
17	Ensure effective and efficient utilisation of funds	4.36	Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils	4.28
18	Be innovative and ready to bring about changes	4.34	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	4.28
19	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise	4.33	Be ready to accept criticism	4.24

20	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority	4.30	Look after and solve problems of staff and students	4.22
21	Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning	4.27	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively	4.18
22	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively	4.25	Recognise and reward hardworking staff and students	4.18
23	Articulate and communicate a shared vision	4.24	Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations	4.17
24	Develop realistic plans	4.22	Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT	4.17
25	Recognise and reward hardworking staff and students	4.20	Manage teaching and learning process	4.16
26	Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions	4.18	Be innovative and ready to accept changes	4.16
27	Understand education and other relevant laws	4.16	Understand different curriculum perspectives	4.14
28	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	4.16	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	4.13
29	Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations	4.16	Understand education and other relevant laws	4.13
30	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	4.16	Develop realistic plans	4.12
31	Develop a system for managing school records	4.14	Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders	4.09
32	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	4.10	Recognise sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them	4.07
33	Foster unity and cohesion amongst the members of school community	4.10	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	4.06
34	Understand different curriculum perspectives	4.10	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise	4.02
35	Looking after and solving problems of staff and students	4.08	Participate effectively in community activities	4.02
36	Determine curricula which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils	4.02	Develop a system for managing school records	4.00

37	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing with relevant information in time to all stakeholders	4.02	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing with relevant information in time to all stakeholders	4.00
38	Be ready to accept criticism	4.02	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	4.00
39	Develop a system for professional development of staff	4.00	Be able to use modern technology including ICT	3.97

Attention is drawn to the first row of Table 4.5 which shows *'ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula'* and *'ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively'* are the head-teachers' actions that were perceived to be of highest degree of importance by the senior officials and secondary school head-teachers respectively. These two actions, though different, are closely linked as they both put strong emphasis on teaching and learning. It is also interesting to note that both the senior officials and head-teachers accorded *'work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals'* a second and fourth highest priority respectively. These findings suggest that effective school leadership demands head-teachers to put strong emphasis on teaching and learning, and they can successfully do so if they work closely with all stakeholders including staff, students, parents, the community, and local and central authorities.

It is also evident in Table 4.5 and as summarised in Table 4.6 below that despite the differences in ranking, there are head-teachers' actions that were perceived to be most important by both groups of respondents and others that were perceived differently.

Table 4.6: Similarities and differences between senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) on what they perceive to be the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions identified by both senior officials and head-teachers	**Head-teachers' actions identified by senior officials only**	**Head-teachers' actions identified by head-teachers only**
Technical leadership force • Develop realistic plans • Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities • Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations • Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time • Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds • Develop a system for managing school records • Be innovative and ready to accept changes • Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders • Understand education and other relevant laws	**Technical leadership force** • Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning • Be innovative and ready to bring about changes	**Technical leadership force** • Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders • Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT • Be able to use modern technology including ICT
Human leadership force • Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals • Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans • Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority • Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks • Encourage transparency and accountability • Have good discipline • Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work • Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively • Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour • Be ready to accept criticism • Looking after and solving problems of staff and students • Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	**Human leadership force** • Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions • Foster unity and cohesion amongst members of the school community	**Human leadership force** • Recognise sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them • Participate effectively in community activities
Educational leadership force • Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level • Ensure teaching/learning takes place	**Educational leadership force** • Develop a system for the professional	

according to prescribed curricula • Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively • Supervise closely the teaching/learning processes • Manage the teaching/learning process • Ensures clean, safe and conducive learning environment • Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods, etc.) • Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials • Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise • Understand different curriculum perspectives • Develop curricula which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils **Symbolic leadership force** • Be a good role model • Recognise and award hardworking staff and students	development of staff **Symbolic leadership force** • Articulate and communicate a shared vision	

The similarities of perceptions between the two groups suggest that there is an agreement between the policymakers (senior officials) and practitioners (secondary school head-teachers) on what they perceive to be the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership. However, the differences should not be overlooked as they could be a potential source of conflicts and tensions between policymakers and practitioners (see **5.3.1** and **6.3**).

4.3 Competencies for effective school leadership

In order to perform the actions shown in Table 4.6 effectively, head-teachers must have a mastery of certain competencies. These competencies are explored in 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 through responses to RQ 3 and RQ 6 respectively.

4.3.1 Research Question 3 (RQ3)

What do these stakeholders think are the key competencies required by secondary school head-teachers to enable them to exercise effective school leadership?

NGT group interviews were used to generate stakeholder groups' perceptions of the competencies needed by secondary school head-teachers in exercising effective school leadership (see **3.3**). The competencies were recorded in the form of names or simple phrases and were coded as *head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership*. Procedures similar to those of RQ 1 were used to get the individual ratings of the competencies and ultimately the group priorities (see **4.1.1**). The results are as shown in Appendices 4.5(a-e). Appendix 4.5(f) shows the competencies that were perceived to be most important for demonstrating effective school leadership and accorded high priority by the five stakeholder groups.

Reference is made to the first row of Appendix 4.5(f) which shows that with the exception of the students' group all other stakeholder groups perceived *'leadership skills'* to be the highest ranking competence that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership. These results indicate that almost all the stakeholder groups underscore the importance of leadership skills in bringing about effective school leadership. Furthermore, the stakeholder groups' priorities were coded further into five themes of leadership competencies implied from the Sergiovanni's five leadership forces, namely competencies in technical leadership, human leadership, educational leadership, symbolic leadership and cultural leadership. The results are as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Emergent themes from stakeholders groups' perceptions of the most important competencies that head-teachers need in order to demonstrate effective school leadership coded according to Sergiovanni's five leadership forces

Theme	Senior officials	Head-teachers	Teachers	Students	Parents
Technical leadership competences	Leadership skills Strategic Planning Research and analytical skills Financial management Managing change Time management ICT and communication skills	Leadership skills Planning skills ICT skills Financial management Statistical skills Project write up skills Communication skills Law (legal knowledge)	Leadership skills Decision making skills Effective communication skills ICT skills Income generation skills Financial management Strategic Planning Statistical/ Research skills	Leadership skills Research and analytical skills ICT skills Financial management	Leadership skills Financial management ICT skills Effective communication Record management Order and discipline Decision making skills Time management
Human Leadership competences	Motivation skills Interpersonal skills Conflict resolution and negotiation skills Human Psychology	Motivation skills Decision making skills	Human psychology Interpersonal relationships Ethics	Interpersonal skills Human psychology	Ethics Delegation Interpersonal skills Self management and awareness skills Human psychology
Educational leadership competences	Monitoring and evaluation of student progress	Teaching and learning processes Assessment and evaluation Guidance and counselling	Teaching and learning processes Guidance and counselling; Monitoring and evaluation	Teaching and learning strategies Environmental education; Guidance and counselling	Supervision of teaching and learning Teaching and learning processes and strategies

	Supervision and evaluation skills Professionalism Curriculum management	Staff development skills	Teaching and learning strategies (team teaching; teaching large classes; learner-centred methods, etc)	Inclusive (special needs) education Monitoring and evaluation	Education policy
Symbolic leadership competences	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
Cultural leadership competences	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil

Source: Appendix 4.5 (f)

Two striking features are evident from Table 4.7 First, all the competencies identified by the stakeholder groups fitted in only three themes of leadership competencies namely technical, human and educational leadership competencies and there was none that could be associated with symbolic and cultural leadership. The failure of the stakeholder groups to identify any competencies that could be associated with *symbolic and cultural leadership competencies* suggests once again that the stakeholder groups associate effective school leadership with the use of mainly technical, human and educational leadership forces (also see **5.3.2**).

Second, there are common competencies that cut across at least three stakeholder groups as follows:

- Leadership skills
- Strategic planning
- Information and communication technology (ICT)
- Financial management
- Research and analytical skills

- Interpersonal skills
- Human/social psychology
- Effective communication skills
- Monitoring and evaluation
- Teaching learning processes/strategies
- Guidance and counselling

These findings suggest that there are some shared understandings amongst the various stakeholder groups on the competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership.

The extent to which the findings from the stakeholder groups are confirmed by the senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) is explored through RQ 6.

4.3.2 Research Question 6 (RQ6)

What competencies do the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and the MoEVT senior officials (policymakers) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?

Using procedures similar to those employed for RQ 4 (see **4.1.2**) the respondents (senior officials and head-teachers) were asked to indicate the degree of importance they attach to the 35 competencies that were considered by the five stakeholder groups to be most important for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership (see Appendix 4.5(f) and items with codes C1-C35 in the questionnaire shown in Appendix 3.1). The results are as shown in Appendices 4.6 (a-b). The most

important competencies that both groups of respondents (senior officials and head-teachers) identified as being necessary for demonstrating effective school leadership were taken to be those with mean values of at least 4.0 and/or scored 5 points on the Likert scale from at least 50% of the respondents. The results are as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Senior officials' (policymakers) and head-teachers' (practitioners) perceptions of the most important competencies required by head-teachers to enable them exercise effective school leadership

Rank	Senior officials		Head-teachers	
	Competencies	Mean value	Competencies	Mean value
1	Leadership skills	4.73	Leadership skills	4.56
2	Monitoring and evaluation	4.69	Curriculum	4.56
3	Teaching/learning processes	4.53	Teaching/learning processes	4.52
4	Education Policy	4.43	Monitoring and evaluation	4.49
5	Strategic Planning	4.39	Strategic Planning	4.42
6	Professionalism	4.26	Financial management	4.38
7	Staff appraisal and development	4.26	Decision making	4.37
8	Time management	4.25	Information and communication technology (ICT)	4.37
9	Financial management	4.24	Guidance and counselling	4.34
10	Communication	4.24	Order and discipline	4.32
11	Order and discipline	4.23	Communication	4.31
12	Decision making	4.23	Statistics	4.30
13	Delegation	4.19	Project formulation and write up	4.27
14	Curriculum	4.18	School community relations	4.25
15	Project formulation and write up	4.14	Education Policy	4.24

16	School community relations	4.10	Motivation	4.20
17	Guidance and counselling	4.10	Time management	4.19
18	Human and social psychology	4.10	Research and analytical skills	4.18
19	Motivation	4.10	Professionalism	4.15
20	Record management	4.09	Interpersonal relations	4.12
21	Managing change	4.06	Record management	4.09
22	Assessment	4.00	Delegation	4.09
23			Assessment	4.08
24			Law (legal knowledge)	4.06
25			Human and social psychology	4.05
26			Staff appraisal and development	4.01

These results suggest that both the senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) believe that in order to demonstrate effective school leadership head-teachers must first and foremost possess leadership skills. Second, as shown in Table 4.9 below, Table 4.8 also shows that there are competencies that both groups perceived to be most important and others that they perceived differently

Table 4.9: Similarities and differences between senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) on what they perceive to be the most important head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership

Head-teachers' competencies identified by both senior officials and head-teachers	**Head-teachers' competencies identified by senior officials only**	**Head-teachers' competencies identified by head-teachers only**
Technical leadership competencies • Project formulation and write up • Strategic Planning • Time management • Financial management • Record management • Leadership skills • Decision making • Communication • Order and discipline	**Technical leadership competencies** • Managing change	**Technical leadership competencies** • Information and communication technology (ICT) • Research and analytical skills • Statistics • Law (legal knowledge) • Interpersonal skills
Human leadership competencies • Motivation • Delegation • School community relations • Human and social psychology	**Human leadership competencies** Nil	**Human leadership competencies** Nil
Educational leadership competencies • Curriculum • Monitoring and evaluation • Teaching/learning processes • Education Policy • Assessment • Guidance and counselling • Staff appraisal and development • Professionalism	**Educational leadership competencies** Nil	**Educational leadership competencies** Nil

The similarities in perceptions suggest that there is a general agreement between the senior officials (policymakers) and the head-teachers (practitioners) on the competencies that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership. The differences may however cause potential tensions between policymakers and practitioners as far as CPD needs of the head-teachers are concerned. These issues are further explored in **5.3.4.**

4.4 Head-teachers' professional learning needs

Following the identification of the most important competencies that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership by both policymakers and practitioners, the task ahead was to identify those that were perceived by both groups as the training priorities of the practicing secondary school head-teachers. This is explored through Research Question 7 in the following section.

4.4.1 Research Question 7 (RQ 7)

What are the perceptions of the secondary school head-teachers and of MoEVT senior officials concerning the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers?

From a list of 35 competencies that were perceived by the five stakeholder groups to be most important for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership, the respondents (senior officials and head-teachers) were asked to identify those that they perceived to be priorities for training of secondary school head-teachers by using a five-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 for lowest training priority to 5 for highest training priority). Procedures similar to those used in **4.1.2** were used to rank the competencies with the highest and lowest scores indicating highest and lowest training priorities and the results are as shown in Appendices 4.7(a-b). Those competencies that scored mean values of at least 4.0 and/or '5' ratings from at least 50% of the respondents were considered to be the priorities for the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers. The results are as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Head-teachers' (practitioners') and senior officials' (policymakers') perceptions of training priorities of secondary school head-teachers

Rank	Senior officials		Head-teachers	
	Competencies	**Mean value**	**Competencies**	**Mean value**
1	Monitoring and evaluation	4.77	Project formulation and write up	4.27
2	Leadership skills	4.73	Information and communication technology (ICT)	4.22
3	Teaching/learning processes	4.53	Statistics	4.20
4	Strategic Planning	4.37	Inclusive education	4.12
5	Financial management	4.30	Research and analytical skills	4.12
6	Education Policy	4.28	Law (legal knowledge)	4.04
7	Professionalism	4.17	Guidance and counselling	4.01
8	Guidance and counselling	4.17	Curriculum	4.01
9	Project formulation and write up	4.14	Monitoring and evaluation	3.99
10	Decision making	4.09	Strategic Planning	3.94
11	Managing change	4.06	Financial management	3.87
12	Time management	4.05	Leadership skills	3.85
13	Curriculum	4.04		
14	Delegation	4.04		

Reference is made to the first row of Table 4.10 which displays the competencies that the senior officials and the head-teachers accorded highest training priority. The two competencies are not only different but also emphasise different things. For example, using the Sergiovanni's typology of leadership forces, '*monitoring and evaluation*' emphasises educational leadership while *project formulation and write up* is an aspect of technical leadership. It is also interesting to note that the following two competencies (ICT and research and analytical skills) in the priority list of head-teachers are also aspects of technical leadership. These findings suggest that the head-

teachers' training priorities put a lot emphasis on technical aspects of leadership. Further examination of Table 4.10 shows that there are several competencies that both groups perceived to be of high training priority and others that they perceived differently. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 4.11 below:

Table 4.11: Similarities and differences between senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) on their perceptions of the training priorities of secondary school head-teachers

Training priorities identified by both senior officials and head-teachers	**Training priorities identified by senior officials only**	**Training priorities identified by head-teachers only**
Technical leadership competencies • Strategic Planning • Financial management • Project formulation and write up • Leadership skills **Educational leadership competencies** • Monitoring and evaluation • Guidance and counselling • Curriculum	**Technical leadership competencies** • Managing change • Time management • Decision making **Human leadership competencies** • Delegation **Educational leadership competencies** • Teaching/learning processes • Education policy • Professionalism	**Technical leadership competencies** • Information and communication technology (ICT) • Research and analytical skills • Statistics • Law (legal knowledge) **Educational leadership competencies** • Inclusive education

Both the similarities and the differences in the perceptions may have implications for the designing and effectiveness of CPD programmes for the head-teachers. These issues are explored further in **5.2.2** and **5.3.4**.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the study. The findings from both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this sequential exploratory mixed study were presented according to the themes arising from the research questions. The themes

were: features/characteristics of effective school leadership, head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership, head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership and professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers. In general the findings from the qualitative phase that involved five stakeholder groups were confirmed by the findings from the quantitative phase that involved senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners). There were however some few but significant differences between the policymakers and the practitioners on the various aspects of effective school leadership being investigated in this study. These issues are explored further in Chapter 5 where the discussions of the findings are presented in detail.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings reported in Chapter Four. It should be recalled that the central focus of this study is to understand the meaning of effective school leadership as perceived by the Zanzibar key education stakeholders (MoEVT's senior officials, head-teachers, teachers, students and parents) and its implications for the roles, and professional training and development of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar. Therefore, the chapter is structured to reflect these two major themes, namely effective school leadership and professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar. It starts in **5.1** by discussing the findings on effective school leadership followed in **5.2** by discussion of the findings on professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers. The chapter then discusses in **5.3** the key issues that emerged from these discussions, and concludes in **5.4** with a summary that highlights the major issues covered in this chapter.

5.1 Effective school leadership

This study used Sergiovanni's (1991) leadership typology to conceptualise effective school leadership. Sergiovanni (1991) views leadership as comprising a set of five forces (technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural) with effective school leadership taking place when head-teachers are able to combine and use the five forces appropriately. Accordingly, this section is structured to cover the following: technical leadership, human leadership, educational leadership, symbolic leadership and cultural leadership.

5.1.1 Technical leadership

Technical leadership is achieved through head-teachers' ability to use the technical force (see **2.5**). In this study, the technical aspects of leadership were evident in the form of features/characteristics of effective school leadership as well as head-teachers actions for demonstrating effective school leadership. Table 5.1 summarises the various aspects of technical leadership that were identified by the stakeholder groups and confirmed by both the senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners).

Table 5.1: Technical aspects of leadership

Features/characteristics	Head-teachers' actions
• Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals • Effective and efficient utilisation of funds • Good discipline of students and staff • Availability of important school records • Transparency in conducting school business	• Develop realistic plans • Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities • Ensure effective and efficient use of funds • Encourage transparency and accountability • Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations • Understand education and other relevant laws • Be innovative and ready to accept changes • Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders • Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time

Source: Tables 4.3 and 4.6

Table 5.1 shows that in this study there are five dimensions of technical leadership that are associated with effective school leadership, namely, planning and achievement of desired goals, effective management of financial resources, transparency and accountability, order and discipline, proper management of records and effective communication. These are discussed below.

5.1.1.1 Planning and achievement of desired goals

There are no doubts that the majority of stakeholders including senior education officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) associate effective school leadership with planning and its successful implementation to achieve the desired goals/objectives. Cunningham (1982: 5) defines planning as:

> ...selecting and relating knowledge, facts, images, and assumptions regarding the future for the purpose of visualisation and formulation of desired outcomes to be achieved, sequential activities necessary to achieve those outcomes, and limits on acceptable behaviour to be used in their accomplishment.

According to Ramsey (2006: 17) "leadership and planning go together. ... To become an effective principal ... you need to become a chronic planner". Cunningham (1982: 12) distinguishes between *strategic planning* which is "the process of deciding on objectives for the organisation, on changes in those objectives, on the resources used to obtain objectives, and on the policies that are to govern the acquisition, use, and disposition of the resources" and *operational planning* which is "the process by which administrators ensure that resources are obtained and used effectively and efficiently in the accomplishment of the strategic objectives". It is obvious from these definitions that operational planning is part and parcel of strategic planning. According to Lumby (2003) planning is now a requirement in schools and colleges in many countries including Hong Kong, Singapore, Australia and is formally practiced in the UK. In the literature, it is interchangeably expressed as strategic or school development/improvement planning (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994; Fidler 1996). According to Fidler (1996) strategic planning is a more defined and comprehensive form of school development planning. The role of school development planning in the improvement of the quality of education is very well documented in the literature (Hargreaves and Hopkins 1994; MacGilchrist *et al.* 1995). According to Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991: 3) "the purpose of development planning is to improve the

quality of teaching and learning in a school through the successful management of innovation and change". MacGilchrist *et al.* (1995: 222) contend that "school development planning can be used as a school improvement strategy" and found that if properly contextualised school development plans "have positive impact on student, teacher and school wide improvements". However, Fosket and Lumby (2003: 126) argue that strategic planning as a necessary step to improve teaching and learning is a common myth in the literature, but "there is little international evidence that plans substantially influence the core activity of teaching and learning"

Another general myth in the literature is that strategic planning must be based upon the vision of the school and therefore is value-driven as it is closely linked with the ability of the head-teacher to articulate and communicate a shared vision (Quong *et al.* 1998; Dempster and Logan 1998). However Fosket and Lumby (2003) argue that this might not necessarily be the case as there are many situations particularly in centralised and low income countries where planning is done centrally and schools neither have resources to use nor the choice on what or how to teach. In such countries operational rather than strategic planning becomes the major occupation of the school leaders. This seems to be the case in Zanzibar. Schools in Zanzibar cannot develop their own strategic plans since they have no resources at their disposal to implement those plans. Therefore, they may be occupied more with operational plans to implement centrally determined objectives. For example, many schools in Zanzibar have plans to expand their schools and use their self-generated funds to construct new classrooms in order to implement the central objective that require schools to enrol all eligible children.

It is clear in this study that key education stakeholders in Zanzibar seem to acknowledge the importance of planning in bringing about school improvement. However, its institutionalisation may be problematic since under the current centralised budgeting system individual schools are not allocated any funds for their activities. For schools to implement the desired plans, they have to rely upon schools' self-generated funds whose sources are however unreliable (see **5.1.1.2**). The only way that schools can institutionalise planning is for the government to channel funds directly to schools. This calls for the adoption of a school-based management system in Zanzibar where the government channels funds to individual schools and subsequently holds them accountable for the results.

5.1.1.2 Effective management of financial resources

The importance of effective and efficient utilisation of funds is well acknowledged in the literature. For example the UK Audit Commission (1985) emphasises among several other things four basic principles of resource allocation: *economy* (receiving best goods/services at the best possible price); *effectiveness* (ensuring that the goods/services produce the intended or desired outcomes or results); *efficiency* (ensuring that the results/outcomes are secured at minimum cost and time); and *equity* (ensuring equitable distribution of resources to improve learning outcomes). The United Kingdom Office for Standards of Education (OFSTED) (1995: 121) insists on "excellent value for money" and defines an efficient school as the one which "makes good use of all its available resources to achieve the best education outcomes for all its pupils". The bottom line therefore is how the schools spend money wisely to meet the key educational objective - improving the learning outcomes of their students.

One could wonder why there is so much interest in financial issues at school level because of the fact that the government operates a centralised budgeting system whereby schools do not have individual budgetary allocations and therefore do not receive any direct funds from MoEVT. While this is true, it is also true that schools do get funds directly from several sources. The first source is the voluntary financial contributions from parents. While education is free in principle, head-teachers are required to mobilise parents to contribute financially towards the education of their children. Schools also raise funds through various income generation projects such as kiosks, hiring school facilities, and selling handicrafts as well as agricultural and poultry products. Furthermore, because of financial constraints that have persisted for a long time, schools have become very innovative in mobilising resources from non-traditional sources including non-governmental organisations (NGO), community based organisations (CBO), religious organisations, international funding agencies, members of the business community and philanthropic institutions and individuals. Therefore, the central issue is how schools use these funds to improve the learning outcomes of students. This seems to be problematic in Zanzibar for several reasons. First, there is no transparent way to understand how much schools have collected and spent each year. Second, school development planning is yet to be institutionalised in Zanzibar and therefore it is not clear the extent to which school budgeting, if any, is linked to school improvement plans. In some schools, money has been spent in putting up new physical structures despite the fact that the existing structures are sufficient to meet the demand. Putting up new structures is perceived by some head-teachers as a sign of effective school leadership since buildings are easily visible and impressive to passers-by including their leaders. There are also cases where head-teachers feel proud to deposit the money in banks despite the many problems faced

by their schools. To them effective leadership implies 'saving' a lot of money in the school account. It is because of these reasons that the issue of effective and efficient utilisation of school funds becomes a matter of great concern to stakeholders and its link to effective school leadership should therefore be not surprising.

5.1.1.3 Transparency and accountability

How schools use money wisely brings us to the third and closely related theme, namely *transparency and accountability*. Kogan (1988: 25) defines accountability as "a condition in which individual role holders are liable to review and the application of sanctions if their actions fail to satisfy those with whom they are in accountability relationship". Caldwell and Spinks (1992: 139 – 140) clarify further the concept of accountability when applied to schools:

> Accountability refers to a process of providing information to others, enabling judgements to be made about the extent to which the school is responsive to the needs of students, the local community and society at large. Included here are relatively narrow but nevertheless important aspects of accountability such as the manner in which money has been used or laws have been observed.

Further elaboration of the meanings of and relationship between transparency and accountability are provided by the United Nations (2004: 8) as follows:

> Transparency and accountability are interrelated and mutually reinforcing concepts. Without transparency, that is, unfettered access to timely and reliable information on decisions and performance, it would be difficult to call public sector entities to account. Unless there is accountability, that is, mechanisms to report on the use of public resources and consequences of failing to meet stated performance objectives, transparency will be of little value. The existence of both conditions is a pre-requisite to an effective, efficient and equitable management in public institutions.

Inherent in the definitions and meanings of transparency and accountability provided above is the need to have systematic procedures that will ensure that schools conduct their core business (educating the children to meet the expectations of the state, community, parents as well as their own expectations) effectively and efficiently and to hold accountable all those who fail the schools to meet the desired expectations.

Apparently, this study has demonstrated that effective school leadership is contingent upon the extent to which head-teachers are transparent and accountable to their stakeholders (see Table 5.1). The issue at stake, however, is the extent to which the existing educational governance structures and mechanisms facilitate transparency and accountability. Therefore, it is interesting to see how the main forms of accountability, namely, *professional accountability* and *public accountability* (Kogan 1988; Bush 1994) are promoted within the Zanzibar education system. According to Bush (1994: 316) professional accountability "relates to professional self control" whereby "teachers are judged by peers on the basis of their adherence to professional norms and values". In Zanzibar, there is no professional body to regulate the professional conduct of teachers including head-teachers. However the Zanzibar Education Act No. 6 of 1982 has a section on the code of ethics for teachers and those who breach it are punishable by law. Consequently, issues related to professional misconduct of teachers or head-teachers are dealt with by the employer (MoEVT) and it becomes the duty of head-teaches to ensure that their staff as well as themselves adhere to professional norms and values and to report to relevant authorities those who breach them. In this respect, the employer serves both as a prosecutor and a judge, a scenario that could be perceived to be unfair. In order to promote professional accountability there is need to establish an independent professional body to regulate the professional conduct of teachers including head-teachers. This study has demonstrated that awareness on professionalism amongst head-teachers is quite high since about 51.2% of head-teachers perceived professionalism to be one of the most important competencies that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership.

With respect to public accountability three kinds are evident in the literature (Glassman and Sullivan 2006). The first one is *upward accountability* which refers to the obligation of school authorities to be accountable to their superiors including those at district, regional and central level. In addition to regular reports from head-teachers that may provide data and information as required by the superiors, in many countries including Zanzibar the main organ established to enforce upward accountability is the Inspectorate. In Zanzibar, inspectors have a legal mandate to visit and inspect schools. The schools are expected to be inspected at least once a year and reports are sent to relevant authorities at the central, regional and district offices for their appropriate action including imposing sanctions if necessary. However experience has shown that because of the ever increasing number of schools and teachers, shortage of qualified inspectors, lack of transport facilities and other inherent problems, the Inspectorate fail to operate effectively and efficiently. Thus it cannot solely be relied upon as an institution for reinforcing accountability.

The second one is *downward accountability* which refers to the obligation that the school authorities have to students. It is an accountability system that relates to student learning and is there to ensure that the desired standards are achieved. Unlike upward accountability which focuses mainly on *inputs* (e.g. school resources—human, physical, financial; curriculum, policies, rules and regulations etc), downward accountability focuses on *outputs* mainly in the form of outcomes (e.g. learning outcomes including academic achievement of students). It is practiced mainly through setting specific learning standards for each stage of learning and for each subject specified in the curriculum followed by assessments to determine to what extent the students have acquired the desired standards (Glassman and Sullivan 2006). In

Zanzibar apart from the general curriculum for various subjects there are no specific learning standards for the various subjects and stages of learning and therefore there is no transparent mechanism that can help stakeholders to understand on a regular basis whether or not the children are getting education of desirable quality. The only mechanisms available are the end of cycle examinations, for example, examinations carried out at the end of primary, and lower and upper secondary cycles. The results of these examinations are mainly used to determine which students should be labelled as pass and therefore deserve to continue to the next cycle and which ones have failed. Experience shows that examination results have never been used to held accountable those who were responsible for 'failing' the students.

The third form of public accountability is *outward* or *external accountability*. According to Eraut (1994b: 302) there are two forms of external accountability: "accountability for school policy and practice to a wide range of stakeholders and accountability specifically to parents for the progress and well being of their children". In Zanzibar, the mechanism for this form of accountability is the School Committee which is basically a parent organ legally established to spearhead educational developments in schools. The committee is composed of a chairperson who is appointed by the District Commissioner of the area where the school is located, the head-teacher who is by virtue of his/her position becomes the secretary of the committee, a student representative, representatives of parents who are elected democratically and other appointed members. As expected from highly centralised education systems the powers of school committees are very limited as they have no mandate to hire and fire or to impose sanctions to school leaders or any member of staff. Consequently school leaders and teachers do not in any way feel that they are

accountable to the school committees. Furthermore, in the absence of defined criteria such as personal qualities and competencies for members of the school committee there is no guarantee that the committee have the capacities to carry on their mandates effectively. Another factor that may affect the efficiency of the committees is the extent to which the appointed members are acceptable to the stakeholders including staff, students and parents because these stakeholders are not involved in the selection process, thus putting into question the whole process of getting the members.

5.1.1.4 Order and discipline

The findings of this study demonstrate that effective school leadership is associated with the ability of head-teachers to maintain order and discipline in their schools (see Table 5.1). Discipline is part and parcel of school life and refers to members of the school community complying with the code of behaviour which is normally in the form of school rules and regulations. It may also apply to the punishment that is given as a consequence of members of the school community going against the established rules. Thus discipline serves as prevention as well as cure of unacceptable behaviours in schools. Since teaching and learning constitute the core business of schools, the aim of school discipline should be to make a school a safe and conducive place for effective teaching and learning. The central issue, however, is on who decides what an unacceptable behaviour is and what type of preventive or curative measures are necessary. The general view is that order and discipline is maintained when those who will be affected participate fully in formulating the discipline policy.

In Zanzibar, teaching is part of the civil service and teachers are bound to follow the civil service 'general orders' that apply to all civil servants. Furthermore, teachers are

bound to adhere to the code of conduct as per the Zanzibar Education Act regulations. However, head-teachers have no powers to take disciplinary measures against undisciplined staff or those who breach the code of conduct of teachers. The only thing they can do is to report the matter to central authorities. Thus, the authority of head-teachers to enforce discipline to their staff is undermined since teachers may feel themselves to be more accountable to the central authorities than to their head-teachers. With respect to students, head-teachers are responsible for promoting good behaviour and discipline of students. However, there is no policy that guides schools on what measures to take when they encounter students' disciplinary problems. Consequently schools resort to disciplinary measures that could be detrimental to students' academic progress. This has manifested itself in this study (see Appendix 4.2a and 4.2b) when *'presence of alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment'* scored mean values of 2.82 and 3.40 from head-teachers and senior officials respectively. These results seem to suggest that despite it being discouraged by MoEVT and it being unlawful in many countries including the UK, a majority of senior officials and head-teachers still regard corporal punishment as a major means of enforcing discipline amongst students. Experience shows that many disciplinary problems that involve students in Zanzibar schools are the consequences of students' refusal of corporal punishment. Thus maintaining and promoting discipline of staff through centrally determined rules and coming up with acceptable students' behaviour management policy are among the major challenges facing Zanzibar head-teachers today.

5.1.1.5 Proper management of school records

In this study, the majority of stakeholder groups, senior officials and head-teachers perceived the *'availability of important school records'* to be one of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership. This finding is in agreement with the results reported in the literature where record keeping was found to be one of the factors of effective schools (Mortimore *et al.* 1988). Records are all those documents which facilitate the business carried out by the school (teaching and learning) and are retained for a certain period to provide evidence of its transactions and activities. These records may include students' records (personal data, academic progress - test scores and examination results, conduct and discipline, attendance records etc), staff records (personal data, employment records, attendance records, conduct and discipline, professional development, etc), financial data (revenues and expenditures), and physical assets including buildings, furniture, equipment and land. The importance of school records in facilitating school improvement efforts cannot be overemphasised. They are critical for organisational learning, a valuable resource for national educational and school development planning, as well as for enabling schools to operate in an orderly, efficient and accountable manner. The preservation of records which are of permanent value also enables schools to preserve their unique institutional identities and memories. Thus, it is the responsibilities of head-teachers to ensure that there is an effective school record management system. However, despite the aforementioned importance of school records, currently there is no policy that guides head-teachers on how to manage those records efficiently. For example, there are no guidelines on what type of records should be kept and for how long; which ones should receive confidential treatment and which ones should be

accessible to the general public etc. Thus, the need for school record management policy in Zanzibar cannot be overemphasised.

5.1.1.6 Effective communication

It is evident in this study that effective school leadership is associated with the abilities of head-teachers to communicate effectively with all stakeholders. The importance of effective communication in any organisation is well acknowledged in the literature. According to Armstrong (2003: 815) "good communications are required to achieve coordinated results". Managing change is an inevitable challenge that all school leaders have to face. However the ability of head-teachers to manage change effectively depends upon the extent to which they understand the feelings of those who will be affected by it and this could only happen if there is an effective communication system between school leaders and their key stakeholders including teachers, students, parents, as well as local and central authorities. Furthermore, the high commitment of staff which is critical to successful achievement of desired goals depends upon the ability of head-teachers to motivate their staff through both extrinsic and intrinsic reward systems. According to Armstrong (2003), the feelings about work and the associated rewards depends very much on the effectiveness of communication from the school leaders and within the school. In centralised education systems, such as the one in Zanzibar, the ability of head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership depends upon the degree to which they are able to communicate effectively both upwards and downwards. They have to ensure that directives from the 'top' are understood and implemented at school level; they have to communicate their own views and ensure that they are understood and shared by other members of the school community and at the same time they have to

communicate upwards the feelings and views of teachers, students and parents. This could not be an easy task since different stakeholders my perceive things differently. Consequently, effective school leadership is contingent upon head-teachers ability to reconcile different views and communicate shared meanings both upwards and downwards. In short effective communication is "the life blood of every school organisation" (Lunenburg and Ornstein 1991: 185).

5.1.2 Human leadership

The human force is concerned with the human aspect of leadership (see **2.5**). In this study the various human aspects of leadership were evident in the form of features/ characteristics of effective school leadership, as well as head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership. Table 5.2 summarises the various human aspects of leadership that were identified by stakeholder groups and confirmed by both the senior officials and head-teachers.

Table 5.2: Human aspects of leadership

Features/characteristics	Head-teachers' actions
• High commitment of staff • Sharing of responsibilities and delegation of authority amongst staff and students • Cooperative spirit and teamwork	• Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community and local and central authorities to achieve desired goals. • Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans • Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority • Make decisions without fear, favouritism and be ready to take risks • Looking after and solve problems of staff and students • Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively • Be ready to accept criticism • Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and a good sense of humour • Must be dedicated to his/her work • Have good discipline • Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students

Source: Tables 4.3 and 4.6

It is evident from Table 5.2 that human leadership manifests itself in various dimensions including securing staff commitment, involvement of stakeholders, shared leadership and ethical leadership. There is also a trait dimension of human leadership since it is closely associated with the personal qualities of the head-teachers. These dimensions are discussed below.

5.1.2.1 Securing high commitment of staff

The high commitment of staff is not only a key feature of effective school leadership, but is also a means towards the achievement of the ultimate goal of schooling, that is, improving the learning outcomes of all children. MacGilchrist *et al.* (2004) contend that "the challenge of head-teachers ... is to find ways of bringing the staff on board and getting them to be committed to and prepared to become involved in change". According to Sergiovanni (1991: 101) "high student motivation to learn and high teacher motivation to teach are pre-requisite for quality schooling and must be effectively addressed by principals". Underpinning teacher commitment is the extent to which head-teachers are able to inspire confidence and boost morale of their staff. In other words teacher motivation becomes a central issue. Two types of motivation, namely extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are well acknowledged in the literature (Owens 2001; Hoy and Miskel 2005). According to Owens (2001: 332) extrinsic motivation has been widely used in educational organisations and is based upon the behavioural view that "people can be motivated through manipulation of positive reinforcers (the carrot) and negative reinforcers (the stick)". In this aspect high teacher commitment is based on the head-teachers' capacity and authority to reward or punish staff in exchange of their job performance. This refers to what Sergiovanni (1990: 31) calls "leadership by bartering". Thus extrinsic motivation is closely linked

with transactional leadership. On the other hand intrinsic motivation is based on the cognitive and humanistic views of the motivation. Owens (2001: 332) explains:

> The cognitive and humanistic views of motivation spring from an understanding of people as unfolding and developing both physiologically and psychologically from biological givens. The internal capacities of individuals, primarily emotional and cognitive, give rise to feelings, aspirations, perceptions, attitudes, and thoughts, and it is these that can be motivating or demotivating.

It is clear from Owens' remarks above that in order to be able to provide intrinsic motivation, head-teachers must be able to create enabling conditions through which the internal capacities (emotional and cognitive) of teachers can develop and grow. This refers to what Sergiovanni (1990: 32) calls "leadership by bonding" where the "focus is on arousing awareness and consciousness that elevate school goals and purposes to the level of a shared covenant that bonds together the leader and the follower in a moral commitment". Sergiovanni (1990: 32) stresses that leadership by bonding "responds to such intrinsic human needs such as desire for the purpose, meaning, and significance in what one does". Thus intrinsic motivation is closely linked with transformational leadership. Thus, in order to secure high staff commitment head-teachers must have powers to exercise both transactional and transformational leadership.

As far as Zanzibar head-teachers are concerned the central issue would be the extent to which head-teachers are able to institutionalise high teacher commitment through extrinsic or/and intrinsic motivation. In Zanzibar the capacity and authority of head-teachers to exercise extrinsic motivation is very limited since key human resource management functions such as hiring and firing, appraisal and development, compensation, and promotion of staff that they could rely upon in rewarding or punishing staff are centralised. Their authority is limited to providing recommendations only which may be accepted or rejected by the central authorities.

In the case of rejection, the legitimate authority of head-teachers becomes undermined since teachers may no longer have the trust and confidence in their leaders. This situation may lead to deteriorating teacher motivation and ultimately to teacher job dissatisfaction. Because head-teachers' authority and capacity to provide extrinsic motivation to their teachers is limited they have to rely on intrinsic motivation. Similarly, head-teachers authority to secure high teacher commitment through intrinsic motivation is limited because it relies heavily on transformational leadership, which in turn depends upon how they can *'inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students'* through articulation and communication of a shared vision. Under highly centralised systems such as that of Zanzibar head-teachers can hardly develop distinct visions of their schools since they have to comply with centrally determined objectives. In some cases these objectives may not be congruent with teachers' views and consequently become a source for teachers' job dissatisfaction. This view is echoed by Bush and Middlewood (2005: 5) who contend that school leaders who operate in controlled systems "experience particular problems in developing a distinctive vision of their schools". Other avenue that head-teachers could provide intrinsic motivation is through the work itself—to make it enjoyable, rewarding and challenging to their teachers (Maslow 1970; Herzberg 1966). Their ability to utilise these avenues is also limited because the most relevant activities that could be associated with intrinsic motivation such as working with teachers through curriculum development, and staff appraisal and development are also centralised. Furthermore, for many low income countries including Zanzibar "intrinsic motivation is insufficient to counter the perceived excessive bureaucracy, heavy workloads, low pay and inadequate professional development" (Bush and Middlewood 2005: 21). In short, while stakeholder groups, senior officials and head-teachers have recognised

high teacher commitment as critical to effective school leadership, the ability of head-teachers to secure such commitment from teachers through either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation is highly compromised by the existing centralised educational governance structure and unsatisfactory working conditions.

5.1.2.2 Involvement of stakeholders in school activities

Involvement and *participation* seem to be used interchangeably in the literature. However Armstrong (2003) provides a useful distinction that is helpful in discussing the findings of this study related to involvement and participation. According to Armstrong (2003: 806) *involvement* is "primarily a management-driven concept" which means that leaders allow employees to discuss with them issues that affect them but leaders retains the right to make the final decision while *participation* is about "employees playing a greater part in the decision making process. It is therefore much closer to the concept of employee voice systems, that is, arrangements for ensuring that employees are given the opportunity to influence management decisions and to contribute to the improvement of the organisational performance". It is evident in this study that *involvement* is more preferred than *participation* since the stakeholder groups identified *'involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans'* to be amongst the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership and this was confirmed by the senior officials and head-teachers (means scores of 4.37 and 4.45 respectively) (see Appendix 4.4a and Appendix 4.4b). The corresponding mean values with respect to *'participation of staff and students in decision making'* were 4.04 for senior officials and 3.79 for head-teachers (see Appendix 4.2a and Appendix 4.2b). These results seem to suggest that head-teachers are keen to involve

their stakeholders in school improvement plans but not in decision making. However, the general view is that "people are more likely to accept and implement decisions in which they have participated, particularly where these decisions relate directly to the individual's own job" (Savery *et al.* 1992: 24).

The main stakeholders in schools are parents and the community at large, students and teachers. With respect to parental and community involvement, the school effectiveness and improvement literature is replete with evidence to support parental and community involvement in schools both in industrialised and low income countries and is considered to be one of the key factors for enhancing school effectiveness and improvement (Schreens and Bosker 1997; Sammons *et al.* 1995; Heneveld and Craig 1996; Lockheed and Levin 1993; Lockheed and Verspoor 1991). Similarly, the World Summit on Education held in Dakar, Senegal in 1991 also acknowledged and reaffirmed the role of parents and communities in achieving the EFA (Education for All) goal. Thus, the challenge for school leaders and particularly head-teachers is to win the hearts and minds of the parents and the communities at large. At stake, however, is to understand what types of parental and community involvement lead to school improvements particularly in raising education standards and learning outcomes of students. Watt (2001) contends that community involvement may result in the desired outcomes when communities are empowered to identify their own needs and priorities, participate in decisions about resources allocation, and hold education providers accountable for ensuring that children receive a minimum acceptable standard of education.

In Zanzibar the official mechanism of parental and community involvement is through the school committees. Experience shows that parental and community involvement has mainly been in the form of purchasing basic school inputs including uniforms and stationery (exercise books, pens, pencils, etc.), voluntary financial contributions and direct labour particularly in the construction of classrooms. Undeniably, these forms of involvement are extremely important and have contributed significantly in expanding access to schooling, but unless the communities and parents are empowered to hold accountable those who are responsible for educating their children the desired school outcomes may not be easily achieved. As already discussed (see **5.1.1.3**) the current educational governance structure does not provide the school committees (or the parents they represent) with the necessary mandate to hold accountable school leaders and staff who do not perform to the desired standards. But even if the mandate is given, it would be unfair to hold schools accountable when resources are centrally controlled. Against this backdrop and referring specifically to education systems of Sub-Saharan Africa, Watt (2001) calls for effective decentralisation to community level and changes in budget procedures that would allow resources to flow rapidly and efficiently from the centre to the school level. This call needs to be given serious consideration when Zanzibar decentralises educational governance as per requirement of its new education policy (MoEVT 2006).

In addition to parental and community involvement, findings of this study also show that effective school leadership implies strong involvement of students and staff in developing and implementing school programmes (see Table 5.2). The role of student involvement in school improvement efforts is well acknowledged in the literature

(Reynolds 1991; Rudduck *et al.* 1996). MacGilchrist *et al.* (2004) place pupils' rights and responsibilities at the heart of an effective school and calls for their active involvement in school improvement efforts. Ruduck *et al.* (1996) emphasise the importance of listening and acting upon students' views about teaching and learning. Hopkins (2001:98) explains the pros and cons of student involvement in school improvement efforts:

> Pupil involvement is a particularly important factor in school improvement. This can occur at an organisational level, by involving pupils in decision making and encouraging them to take responsibility for day to day routines. At classroom level, students can be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and, through involvement, to learn organisational, planning, discussion, decision making and leadership skills. When pupils are less involved, it is likely that their attitudes to school will be much more negative. Then, when innovations are introduced they may well become barriers to change. Their resistance may not be open and tangible, but nevertheless their intuitive reactions may create the negative atmosphere that discourages staff from pursuing their goals.

As far as low income countries are concerned, Harber (1993) conducted research in two schools in Tanzania with active students' councils. In general the students' councils in both schools were found to have several advantages. For example the councils:

- Enabled school problems to be discussed before they get out of hand.
- Enabled students to help teachers particularly in non-teaching functions, thus reducing their workload and therefore allowing them to concentrate more on academic development of students.
- Enabled students to be self-disciplined, responsible and self-reliant, thus reducing significantly students' discipline problems.
- Enabled students to learn and acquire leadership and creativity skills, as well as to increase their confidence.
- Contributed to friendly school atmosphere.

Thus, the importance of student involvement in school activities cannot be overemphasised. In Zanzibar the official mechanism for facilitating student involvement in schools is through students' government, which according to the MoEVT's directive must be democratically elected by all students in the school. However, effective functioning of the students' governments very much depends upon how they are perceived by head-teachers and their staff – whether they value and see students' governments (and students) as co-partners in school improvement efforts or they simply perceive them as imposed structures from the top and therefore are there to show compliance and meet the demands of the central bureaucracy. Currently there is no information to ascertain the effectiveness of students' governments in Zanzibar schools but the comparatively low rating shown by head-teachers with respect to *'participation of staff and students in decision making'* (see Appendix 4.2b) seems to raise concerns on the nature of students' involvement and participation in Zanzibar schools. Furthermore the low rating given by senior officials and head-teachers (see Appendices 4.2a and 4.2b) on aspects of effective school leadership that seemed to be favoured by students' group *('presence of extra-curricular activities'* and *'presence of alternative strategies for disciplining students instead of corporal punishment')* may suggest that students' concerns are not taken seriously. Student involvement and participation in school decisions is definitely an area that warrants further investigation.

With respect to teacher involvement and participation, there is a general agreement in the literature that participation in decision making is "an important factor in the morale of teachers and in their enthusiasm for the school" and "positively related to the individual teacher's satisfaction with the profession of teaching" (Hoy and Miskel

2005: 323). According to Fullan (1992) successful implementation of innovations in schools depends upon the extent to which teachers have been involved in the change process. Barth (1990) suggests that teachers should be involved before decisions are made. In general various research show that most teachers desire greater participation particularly in matters that concern them. For example various studies carried out in South Africa showed that teachers preferred principals who encouraged participation (Steyn and Squelch 1997; Poo and Hoyle 1995) and one concluded that "participation is not just a passing fancy; it is deeply rooted in human nature and is probably a basic human drive" (Mosage and van der Westhuizen 1997: 201). It can be recalled, that in this study the teachers' group accorded *'participation of staff, students and parents in decision making'* a highest degree of importance amongst the features/characteristics of effective school leadership which they perceived to be most important (see Table 4.1). However, as already discussed above the relatively low degree of importance that head-teachers seem to attach to participation of staff in decision making should be a major cause for concern. Probably the head-teachers seem to be most sensitive to and concerned with the dangers associated with shared decision making particularly *group think* that may somehow undermine their authority.

5.1.2.3 Distributed leadership?

In this study effective school leadership is closely associated with notions of sharing of responsibilities, delegation of power and authority, and cooperative spirit and team work. These notions are key features of what in the literature is called distributed leadership (Harris and Lambert 2003; Gronn 2000; Spillane *et al.* 2003). It is not new since division of labour in schools is inevitable and teachers apart from their teaching duties may have other responsibilities as well. What might be new with the concept of

distributed leadership is the change of mindsets from leadership being conceptualised as a sole function of a super hero individual to a view that all members of the organisation can lead. Distributed leadership is not merely the distribution of functions amongst members of the school community. It is about building up the necessary cultures and structures that enable all members of the organisation to develop shared meanings and understandings about the goals to be achieved in the school and to take respective leadership roles and responsibilities in a well coordinated manner. It is also linked to intrinsic motivation in that seeking to draw out the leadership potential in others can help to motivate them. In Zanzibar, necessary structures for facilitating distributed leadership are in place. In addition to deputy head-teachers there are section leaders. Schools are divided into sections - section one covering grades 1 - 3, section two covering grades 4 - 6, and so on. The issue, however, is the extent to which prevailing school cultures support these structures which in turn depend very much on the mindset of head-teachers. According to Harris (2003: 77) distributed leadership "implies a different power relationship within the school where the distinction between the followers and leaders tend to blur". The findings in this study that head-teachers favoured involvement rather than participation (see **5.1.2.2**) may convince one to argue that the concept of heroic leadership is more prevalent within the mindsets of head-teachers since it is impossible to exercise distributed leadership without full participation of stakeholders (staff, students and parents) in decision making. There is definitely a need to investigate further how distributed leadership is being practiced in Zanzibar schools.

5.1.2.4 Ethical leadership

The findings of this study show that effective school leadership is associated with the ability of head-teachers to *'make decisions without fear, favouritism and be ready to take risks'* and the extent to which they *'look after and solve problems of staff and students'*. Leadership involves making decisions and every decision made is grounded upon leader's ethical values. The ethical dimension of leadership arises from the fact that "leadership is not a value free activity" and "schooling is a value-laden activity" (Southworth 1998: 53). For it to be effective it must be founded on a sound ethical base. According to Starratt (2005: 64) educational leaders have "access to the levers of organisational structures and processes that affect the core work of teaching and learning. These structures and processes are not ethically neutral. They can either promote the integrity of the core work of the school, or they curtail or block the integrity of the work of teaching and learning". Lumby and Coleman (2007) associate effective school leadership with the abilities of school leaders to deal equitably and sensibly with the varieties of diversities in their schools (e.g. gender, children with special education needs, ethnicity, *etc*) and argue that they are ethically and morally responsible for promoting equity and social justice in their institutions.

The ethical dimension of leadership manifests itself in various ways in Zanzibar schools. For example, despite being forbidden by MoEVT, some head-teachers suspend students from attending school because of their parents' failure to pay the voluntary financial contribution. Here, the ethical or moral values of the head-teachers may be questioned because they seem not to place children' learning at the centre of their hearts. Similarly, head-teachers sometimes recommend to MoEVT which members of their staff deserve promotion, attend seminars/workshops or go for

further studies and the morale of staff may be affected if they notice that head-teachers have based their decisions on favouritism or external pressures. Furthermore, head-teachers usually keep in their custody key documents such as examination papers, students' assessment records and certificates that they can easily manipulate to favour certain students. Consequently, teaching and learning may be severely affected. Thus, the importance of head-teachers' ethical values in facilitating effective school leadership cannot be overemphasised.

5.1.2.5 Trait leadership

The findings of this study also indicate that effective school leadership is associated with the personal qualities of head-teachers. For example, effective school leadership has been associated with the ability of head-teachers to: *be able to solve staff and students problems; recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively; be ready to accept criticism; have good discipline; be ready to take risks; show tolerance, kindness, understanding and good sense of humour;* and *be dedicated to their work.* These findings somehow resonate with the trait theory of leadership but in a more sophisticated form. They underscore the importance of personal qualities of leaders in demonstrating effective school leadership. Leaders' personal qualities are closely linked to their leadership styles. According to Early and Weindling (2004: 11) "how leaders enact leadership or leadership styles are important because they impact on how people feel and are motivated to perform at higher levels". The findings also resonate with Goleman's (1998) concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) through which notions of self-management, self-awareness, social awareness, empathy and social skills are emphasised because of their key role in enabling leaders to demonstrate effective school leadership (also see **5.3.5**).

5.1.3 Educational leadership

The educational force is about educational aspects of leadership (see **2.5**). Table 5.3 summarises the various aspects of educational leadership that were identified by various stakeholder groups and confirmed by both the senior officials and head-teachers.

Table 5.3: Educational aspects of leadership

Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	**Head-teachers' actions**
• Good academic performance and examination results of students • Teaching done according to prescribed curricula • Good attendance of staff and students • Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students' academic performance • Focus on improving learning outcomes	• Ensure teaching takes place according to prescribed curricula • Understand different curriculum perspectives • Determine curricular which is relevant to the academic abilities of all pupils • Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise • Manage the teaching learning process • Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively • Supervise closely the teaching/learning process • Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials • Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods • Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level • Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment

Source: Tables 4.3 and 4.6

It is evident from Table 5.3 that for the Zanzibar participants, good academic performance of students is closely associated with effective school leadership. It may be recalled that all stakeholder groups identified '*good academic performance of students'* as one of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership and a majority of senior officials and head-teachers accorded it the highest

degree of importance. This finding is in agreement with those from the school effectiveness and improvement research where purposeful leadership from the head-teacher was found to be the most important factor of effective schools (Southworth *et al.* 1995). The message which is conveyed here is that effective school leadership implies improving academic performance of students to desirable levels and to realise this goal head-teachers must focus their attention more on activities that will improve teaching and learning. This message resonates very well with what in the literature is represented as instructional leadership (Hallinger and Murphy 1985; Southworth 2002) or the professional role of the head-teacher (Hughes 1988). According to Leithwood *et al.* (1999: 8) instructional leadership "typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students". Southworth (2002: 79) contends that instructional leadership is "strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional learning of teachers as well as student growth". The activities that are associated with instructional leadership include "defining the school mission (framing school goals; communicating school goals), managing instructional programme (supervising and evaluating instruction; coordinating curriculum; monitoring student progress), and promoting school climate (protecting instructional time; promoting professional development; maintaining high visibility; providing incentives for teachers; enforcing academic standards; providing incentives for students)" (Hallinger and Murphy 1985: 221). It is clear that some of these activities are similar to those shown in Table 5.3 above.

While educational (instructional) leadership seems to be getting a lot of emphasis in Zanzibar it is worth comparing some of the aspects of instructional leadership with

the reality on the ground. At least three aspects of instructional leadership, namely, curriculum, supervision and evaluation (appraisal), and professional development warrant further discussion. This is because they feature prominently both in this study as well as in the literature (Southworth 2002; Hallinger and Murphy 1985) as key aspects of educational (instructional) leadership. In Zanzibar, curriculum development is centralised and is the responsibility of the Department of Curriculum Development and Examinations (DCDE) which prescribes the curriculum, syllabi and text-books to be followed by all the schools. It is therefore logical to say that in this aspect the role of the head-teacher is limited to *curriculum management* rather than *curriculum development*. Therefore it should not be surprising for the stakeholder groups, policymakers and practitioners to perceive the curriculum role of head-teachers as to *'ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula'*.

The same case applies to teacher appraisal. In Zanzibar teacher appraisal is centralised and the responsibility lies mainly with the Inspectorate. Under the current system, head-teachers by their port folio are designate associate school inspectors. Teacher appraisal, according to Okumbe (1999) refers to the process of evaluating effectiveness of employees in their jobs. Appraisals are normally carried out either for the purpose of accountability, professional development or both (Evans and Tomlinson 1989; Craft 1996). Unlike many other countries in Africa, where the Inspectorate plays both the evaluative (accountability) and advisory (professional development) roles, in Zanzibar the two roles are carried out separately by two different groups of people, namely, the school inspectors and advisors respectively. The inspectors are under the Inspectorate while the advisors belong to the Department

of Teacher Education and Development (DTED). According to Roberts (2001: 542) for an appraisal system to be effective it "should be a joint process in which both parties review performance, provide feedback to each other and identify what support is needed to improve performance". The fact that head-teachers are designate associate inspectors signals the message that they are required to concentrate more on teacher and school evaluations as accountability than on the professional development role. This situation is clearly demonstrated in this study through phrases such as '*ensure that all staffs perform their duties effectively*' and '*supervise closely the teaching/learning processes*' (see Table 5.3). Admittedly, these phrases seem to treat teachers as suspicious subordinates who need very close supervision rather than responsible professionals who can make sound judgements on matters related to teaching and learning. Under this situation, teachers may perceive their heads as central agents who are in schools to "check" on them rather than as supportive professional colleagues. Furthermore, both head-teachers and teachers may perceive headship to belong more to the central bureaucracy than to the schools. Thus head-teachers are left in a dilemma between carrying out evaluation role to meet the demands of central bureaucracy and professional role which is expected from teachers. This situation is not healthy for promoting cordial and collegial relationships between head-teachers and teachers which, as already seen, is a crucial aspect of effective school leadership.

Similarly, professional development of teachers is mainly centralised and is the responsibility of the Department of Teacher Education and Development (DTED). Therefore, when available professional development programmes are carried out centrally with head-teachers' role limited to proposing and identifying prospective

candidates, which is again mainly a managerial role. At this juncture, it is interesting to note that only 31.0% (overall mean value = 3.93) and 21.6% (overall mean value = 3.58) of the head-teachers perceived *'develop a system for professional development of staff'* and *'promote life long learning'* as amongst the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership respectively. The corresponding figures for the senior officials were 32.0% (overall mean value = 4.00) and 40.0% (overall mean value = 3.96). These comparatively low figures from both senior officials and head-teachers probably reflect the current situation where professional development of teachers is a central responsibility and therefore is perceived to be not a core function of head-teachers. However, the results are surprising particularly when considering the impact that school-based or school-focused professional development has on improving academic performance of students. According to Early and Bubb (2004: 17) "professional development is crucial for organisational growth and school improvement" and "professional development of teachers and other staff is a key component of developing children's learning". Barth (1990: 49) contends that "probably nothing in the school has more impact on students in terms of skills development, self-confidence, or classroom behaviour than the personal and professional development of their teachers". Thus the centralisation of professional development of teachers has denied the head-teachers an important aspect of educational force that they can use to foster instructional leadership, which is crucial to raising educational standards of students. Furthermore, the centralisation of professional development programmes usually results in top-down approach to professional development mainly in the form of one-shot workshops. While central approaches may be useful in meeting central or system needs, they may be in contradiction with the school and/or individual staff needs.

According to Fullan (2001) centralised top-down approaches to professional development have been proved to be ineffective in bringing about school improvement and raising academic achievement of students. This is because centralised approaches tend to assume that all schools and all teachers have similar professional development needs, which obviously can not be the case. Schools may have particular professional development needs just as teachers may have their own individual professional development needs. Effective professional development programmes are those that are able to strike appropriate balance between national/system, school and individual needs and are usually school-based or school-focussed (Bolam 1986; Dempster 2001; Craft 1996).

It is clear from the findings that the key education stakeholders in Zanzibar recognise the importance of educational force (in Sergiovanni's terms) and therefore instructional leadership and professional role of head-teachers in bringing about school improvement and raising educational standards. It is also clear that the current highly centralised educational management structure in Zanzibar tends to emphasise more the managerial rather than the professional role of head-teachers since it has deprived them of the authority and capacity to carry out the most important aspects of instructional leadership -- curriculum development, staff appraisal and professional development. In short the situation in Zanzibar is similar to the one reported by Lockheed *et al.* (1991: 122) for other low income countries:

> At the school level, authority and responsibilities are actually mismatched. Principals are largely excluded from decisions that affect their ability to improve student achievement. Curricula are designed centrally, and the diverse capacities and interest of schools are often ignored. Teachers are appointed, assigned, evaluated centrally, leaving principals with little control over the choice or discipline of their teachers. ... Nor do principals have authority and resources to organise staff development programs that address the problems and challenges faced by teachers in their schools.

It is therefore clear that if head-teachers are to be instructional leaders of their schools, they must be given the necessary professional autonomy that would enable them to exercise that role efficiently. Thus, there is a need to revisit the role of head-teachers from that of being regarded as mere public servants placed to implement directives from the top to the one that recognises them as professionals and leaders with responsibility and authority to make decisions in their school, while at the same time holding them accountable for their actions.

5.1.4 Symbolic leadership

The symbolic force is concerned with symbolic aspects of leadership (see **2.5**). In this study the symbolic aspects of leadership were not very prominent. In general the stakeholder groups identified only four symbolic aspects of leadership, namely, *'be a good role model'; 'presence of shared vision and mission'; 'articulate and communicate a shared vision';* and *'recognise and reward hardworking staff and students'* and two of them, namely, *'be a good role model'* and *'reward hardworking staff and students'* were confirmed by both the senior officials and head-teachers. The first two, namely *'presence of shared vision and mission'* and *'articulate and communicate a shared vision'* were confirmed only by the senior officials but not by the head-teachers (see Tables 4.1, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.6). These results are surprising at least in two ways. First, it is surprising that stakeholder groups, senior officials and head-teachers failed to identify various activities going on in Zanzibar schools which could be associated with symbolic leadership. According to Sergiovanni (1991) symbolic leadership demand head-teachers to focus on important goals and behaviours and signal to others what is important and valuable in their schools. For example since the core business of schools is teaching and learning, why did the

stakeholder groups, senior officials and head-teachers fail to recognise many head-teachers in Zanzibar who teach their students despite being overloaded with other managerial activities? The head-teachers' involvement in teaching activities reflects an important aspect of symbolic leadership which Sergiovanni (1991: 103) expresses as "downplaying management concerns in favour of educational concerns". Similarly, many schools are carrying out several activities that could be associated with symbolic aspects of leadership such as having regular school assemblies, organising graduation ceremonies, and rewarding hardworking staff and students. There are also some schools where teachers have voluntarily decided to put special uniforms not only for the purpose of identity but also as a cultural symbol to show that they can work together irrespective of their socio-economic status. The findings that the stakeholder groups, the senior officials and the head-teachers did not identify and associate these activities with effective school leadership suggest that symbolic leadership is not perceived to be a priority as far as effective school leadership is concerned in Zanzibar.

Second, despite the fact that the idea of *'vision'* originated from the stakeholder group of senior officials that comprised of MC members of MoEVT, it is surprising that only 31.7% (overall mean value = 3.78) and 19.5% (overall mean value = 3.59) of head-teachers perceived *'presence of shared vision and mission'* and *'articulate and communicate shared vision'* as among the most important features of and head-teachers' action for effective school leadership respectively. It is worth noting that the corresponding percentage and mean values for senior officials were 58.0% and 46.9% and 4.42 and 4.24 respectively. It would seem that the MC members expect head-teachers to have vision of their schools, but the majority of head-teachers and

significant number of senior officials did not see it as most important factor for effective school leadership. The results reflect the general view in the literature where despite the strong empirical evidence on the centrality of vision for effective school leadership (Nias *et al.* 1992; Southworth 1993; Sammons *et al.* 1995), there are some writers who perceive vision and mission to be "problematic aspects of leadership" (Foreman 1998: 29). For example, Fullan (1992: 92) contends that vision "is never an easy concept to work with" because vision building "is a highly sophisticated dynamic process which few organisations can sustain" (Fullan: 1991: 83). Similarly, in their research with leaders Kouzes and Posner' (1996: 124) concluded that "inspiring a shared vision is the leadership practice which they felt most uncomfortable". According to Bush (2003: 7) a major concern is "whether school leaders are able to develop a specific vision for their schools, given the centrality of government prescriptions of both curriculum aims and content". This could probably explain why head-teachers in Zanzibar were not concerned much about the need for vision since they are working under a highly centralised education system. However Begley's (1994) four-level analysis of the 'principal as visionary' (basic, intermediate, advanced and expert) would seem to suggest that Zanzibar head-teachers' visionary level should at least be at a basic level where they are expected to articulate their visions according to the centrally determined educational goals and objectives. Therefore, a more plausible explanation for the head-teachers to be less concerned with vision than the senior officials could be that they have not assimilated the central vision if it is at all available.

On a more positive note, various stakeholder groups identified *'be a good role model'* as one of the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership. This was confirmed by the majority of senior officials and head-teachers. Thus, head-teachers are expected to be exemplary both in terms of their

behaviours and actions. For example, they are expected to be of good character and discipline and to abide with the code of ethics of teachers. Most important, however, is how they are involved in teaching and learning – the core business of schools. A research study carried out in the UK by Early *et al.* (2002) showed that about 73% of secondary school head-teachers had a regular teaching commitment. According to Early and Weindling (2004: 50) "the term 'head-teacher' always implied that heads are involved in teaching – leading by example and showing that they can still 'cut the mustard'". Therefore the MoEVT's directive that requires head-teachers to teach at least a few lessons per week is well justified since it insists on an important aspect of symbolic leadership. However, experience shows that some head-teachers in Zanzibar are not happy with the directive, the main excuse being a lack of time. It is suggested here that probably they might not be aware of the potential of symbolic leadership in fostering effective school leadership.

5.1.5 Cultural leadership

The cultural force is concerned with the cultural aspects of leadership (see **2.5**). In this study no cultural aspects of leadership were identified. The results do not imply that Zanzibar schools do not have unique cultures that signify their identities since any organisation must have its own culture. The results rather suggest that stakeholder groups, senior officials and head-teachers are yet to recognise the role played by school culture in fostering or inhibiting effective school leadership. Schein (1985) contends that effective leadership is contingent upon organisational culture and leaders must inevitably inculcate a culture that will facilitate achievement of the desired goals. According to Schein (1985) to realise the intended objectives, a leader has to carry out one of the following three functions: the creation, the sustaining or if

inevitable, the destruction of the culture. Bush and Anderson (2003: 96) stress that "developing and sustaining a culture of schooling with learning at its heart is a major task for educational leaders and particularly for school principals" and contend that "maintenance of the culture is regarded as a central feature of effective school leadership" (p. 97). A burning issue with regard to school culture in Zanzibar is the extent to which head-teachers are able to inculcate and nurture unique cultures of their schools when major decisions are made centrally. While this may partially explain the perceived lack of attention to issues of cultural leadership, there is a need to understand the cultural aspects of leadership that are inherent in the Zanzibar education system since they can play an important role in bringing about school improvement and raising education standards. Cultural leadership will become even more important when schools are given more autonomy under the new move to decentralise educational governance in Zanzibar.

5.2 Professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers

In general, training and development programmes aim at improving current and future job performance of individuals and therefore try to fill the gap between the desired competencies demanded by the job now and in the future, and the actual competencies that incumbents bring to the job. The competencies that were identified by stakeholder groups and confirmed by senior officials and head-teachers to be most important for effective school leadership reflect the mostly desired competencies and should in principle constitute the professional learning needs of prospective or aspiring head-teachers. Furthermore, the senior officials and head-teachers used the list of most important competencies to identify the current training priorities of head-teachers. Thus, they perceived these competencies as lacking from the practicing

head-teachers and should therefore reflect the professional learning needs of incumbent head-teachers.

5.2.1 Competencies for effective school leadership

Three issues became evident from the findings. First, most of the perceived competencies for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership (see **4.3**) were not peculiar to Zanzibar since they have either been identified by other writers or are evident in training and development programmes in both industrialised and low income countries (Jirasinghe and Lyons 1996; Commonwealth Secretariat 1994, Crossley *et al.* 2003), thus confirming Bush and Glover's (2004:3) view that "an international curriculum for school leadership development is emerging". However, such views should be treated cautiously since although the topics might appear to be the same, their nature and emphasis may vary considerably depending upon the context (socioeconomic, political and cultural) of a particular country. For example, training and development with regard to curriculum and professional development may require different emphasis between countries with centrally determined and school-based curricula and CPD.

Second, these competencies could be associated mainly with technical, human and educational leadership (see **4.3** and Tables 4.7) and there were none that could be associated with symbolic and cultural leadership. The findings confirm further that effective school leadership in Zanzibar is associated more with technical, human and educational leadership than symbolic and cultural leadership (see **5.3.2** below for further discussion). Therefore, it is most likely that symbolic and cultural leadership may not feature in leadership training and development programme of head-teachers.

This is quite contrary with the current international thinking where symbolic and cultural leadership (for example topics on vision, organisational culture, transformational leadership) seem to dominate most training and development programmes of head-teachers in many countries (Bush and Jackson 2002).

Third, there were both similarities and differences between senior officials and head-teachers with regard to what competencies head-teachers should have in order to demonstrate effective school leadership (see **4.3.2** and Table 4.9). The similarities between them show that there are some shared understandings between policymakers and practitioners on what they consider to be the most important competencies for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership which is a healthy situation since both organisational/system and individual needs could be reflected in the training and development programmes of head-teachers. However, depending upon who has the final decision on CPD of head-teachers their differences may have a negative impact on the effectiveness of the CPD programmes. In a highly centralised education system such as the one in Zanzibar, where head-teachers are hardly consulted and central authorities usually make the final decision on what should constitute the training and development programme of head-teachers, system needs would most likely predominate at the expense of the head-teachers' and/or schools' needs. In this respect, the training and development programme of the head-teachers may not reflect the actual needs of head-teachers or those of their schools.

Some competencies that were perceived differently by senior officials and stakeholders deserve special mention because of their important role in facilitating effective school leadership. The competencies perceived to be most important by

head-teachers but not by senior officials include *ICT, research/analytical skills, statistics, law* and *interpersonal skills* (see **4.3** and Table 4.9). With respect to ICT, the results are very consistent since senior officials did not perceive *'be able to use modern technologies including ICT'* (mean value = 3.88) and *'keep pace with the use of modern technology'* (mean value = 3.82) to be amongst the most important head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership. These results are rather surprising particularly when bearing in mind the role played by ICT not only in facilitating teaching and learning but also its strong linkage with the knowledge economy which is now regarded as central to social and economic development of any country (World Bank 2003). It is against this backdrop that ICT is well integrated in the new education policy of Zanzibar (MoEVT 2006). As policymakers, senior officials are expected to be well sensitised to ICT issues and play a key role in ensuring that ICT becomes part and parcel of school curriculum. Similarly, as policymakers, the senior officials need to recognise the importance of *statistics* as well as *research and analytical skills* since these competencies are needed not only by head-teachers in identifying, collecting and analysing key data that will inform them on how their schools are progressing, but also by the senior officials who need accurate information from the schools for diagnostic and planning purposes as well as for understanding what goes on in the schools. Equally surprising is the failure of the senior officials to recognise the importance of head-teachers' *interpersonal skills* in demonstrating effective leadership since successful implementation of school activities depends upon the extent to which the head-teachers are able to secure strong commitment from staff, students and parents, and in this respect head-teachers' interpersonal skills are very important.

On the other hand, senior officials perceived *'management of change'* to be one of the most important competencies that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership but head-teachers perceived differently (overall mean values for senior officials and head-teachers were 4.06 and 3.78 respectively). This state of affairs probably has to do with the highly centralised nature of the Zanzibar education system. In centralised systems, change is usually imposed to schools by the central authorities and according to Bush and Middlewood (2005: 5), "when heads and principals are reduced to implementing directives from national, regional or local government, they lack the scope to articulate school goals". Thus, head-teachers may not accord *'managing of change'* its desired importance since they consider themselves to be mainly implementers rather than managers of change. However, as Zanzibar moves towards decentralisation and increased school autonomy, schools becomes the central units of change and the need for head-teachers to be competent in managing the change process cannot be overemphasised.

5.2.2 Training priorities of secondary school head-teachers

With respect to training priorities two issues are most pertinent. First, most of the competencies perceived to be head-teachers' training priorities by senior officials and head-teachers could mostly be associated with technical and educational leadership (see **4.4** and Table 4.11). Thus, both the policymakers and practitioners did not regard human leadership competencies as priorities for head-teachers' training and development. These results seem to suggest either the incumbent head-teachers are well conversant with human leadership and therefore do not see the necessity for further training and development in this aspect of leadership, or they consider technical and educational leadership to be more important than human leadership.

The latter seems to be a better explanation particularly when one considers the fact that a majority of head-teachers have not received any training in educational leadership and management. Furthermore, the fact that a similar trend was observed with respect to senior officials reinforces the view that technical and educational leadership are regarded to be more important than human leadership. This scenario is worrying because success in all other aspects of leadership is contingent upon the extent to which head-teachers could exercise human leadership effectively. Sergiovanni (1991: 101) writes:

> It is hard to imagine a school functioning properly without strong presence of this human force of leadership. Schools are, after all, human intensive, and *the interpersonal needs of students and teachers are of sufficient importance that, should they be neglected, schooling problems are likely to follow.*

Second, despite the fact that both senior officials and head-teachers considered technical and educational leadership competencies as priorities for head-teachers' training, there were significant differences between the two groups with regard to the type and nature of the competencies. Out of 19 priorities (12 technical and seven educational) only seven (four technical and three educational) (36.8%) were identified by both groups. Also there were seven competencies (three technical, one human and three educational) that were identified only by senior officials and five competencies (four technical and one educational) identified only by head-teachers (see Table 4.11). As already discussed above (see **5.2.1**), these huge differences may have significant implications for effectiveness and success of training and development programmes of head-teachers (also see **5.3.4**).

5.3 Emergent issues

At least five substantive issues are apparent from the foregoing discussion on effective school leadership and professional learning needs of secondary school head-

teachers in Zanzibar. The first issue that has emerged strongly in this study is that effective school leadership seems to be a complex process. The second one is the role played by leadership vis-à-vis management in enhancing effective school leadership. The third issue is the role of centralisation vis-à-vis decentralisation in facilitating effective school leadership. The fourth issue is concerned with a system-focused vis-à-vis individual-focused CPD of head-teachers and the last one (but not the least) is the lack of concern on human leadership skills. These issues are discussed below.

5.3.1 Complex nature of effective school leadership

The first issue is with respect to how effective school leadership is perceived by key stakeholders and how best it can be realised. Despite the shared understandings amongst stakeholders with respect to different aspects of effective school leadership (features, actions, competencies), they seem to emphasise different things. For example, with respect to the most important features of effective school leadership, senior officials and head-teachers seem to put more emphasis on academic performance, while teachers seem to be more concerned with participation in decision making. Students seem to be more concerned with the rule of law while parents seem to be disturbed by the transparency and accountability of head-teachers. Similarly, with respect to head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership, while senior officials and head-teachers seem to emphasise technical and educational leadership (e.g. '*ensure that teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula*'; '*ensure that staff perform their duties effectively*'), teachers and students seem to emphasise participatory and shared or distributed leadership (e.g. '*good cooperation with staff, students and parents*'; '*share responsibility and delegate power and authority*'). The differences amongst various stakeholders may be a source

of conflicts or tensions in schools. For example, too much emphasis on the part of senior officials and head-teachers on technical leadership may result in head-teachers resorting to managerial instead of collegial leadership (Bush 2003) in contrast to what their staff and students expect. Consequently, staff and students may not give their head-teachers the desired cooperation. When this happens head-teachers may resort to authoritarian leadership. Similarly, conflicts may arise when parents demand that head-teachers be transparent and accountable to them, for example in the utilisation of school funds. Thus, these differences pose great challenges to head-teachers since effective school leadership is contingent upon their ability to accommodate and reconcile the different views and interests of their stakeholders. These results confirm the general view in the literature that effective school leadership is a complex process (Morrison 2002) since different stakeholders may perceive it differently (MacBeath 1998). The results also confirm the general view that there is no singular overarching theory for effective school leadership (Harris 2003). They also underscore the need for school leaders (practitioners) and senior officials (policymakers) to understand and take into account the perspectives of the various stakeholders if their efforts to bring about school improvement and raising education standards are to bear the desired results.

5.3.2 Leadership vis-à-vis management

The second issue is with respect to leadership and management vis-à-vis effective school leadership. In this study, the technical force, the human force and educational force have appeared more predominately than have the symbolic and cultural forces. These findings show that in order for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership they have to rely mostly on the technical, human and educational forces.

Accordingly, head-teachers are expected to be competent and skilled in technical, human and educational leadership. These results reflect the earlier situation reported by Bolman and Deal (1993) for industrialised countries where most school leaders used to rely primarily on human resource and structural frames (Sergiovanni's technical, human and some aspects of educational force). In the literature, the technical and human force (structural and human resource frames) are associated with management and transactional leadership, the educational force is associated with instructional leadership, while the symbolic and cultural forces are associated with transformational leadership (Sergiovanni 1991). It is therefore clear that in Zanzibar transactional and instructional leadership are perceived to be more important in securing effective school leadership than symbolic and cultural leadership (transformational leadership). In other words *'management'* rather than *'leadership'* is perceived to be more effective in bringing about school improvement and raising education standards in Zanzibar. According to Bush (2003: 55) "managerial leadership is focused on managing existing activities successfully rather than visioning a better future for the school" and this probably seems to be the case for Zanzibar at the moment.

That being said, it is worth looking at the extent to which head-teachers in Zanzibar could exercise the perceived transactional and instructional leadership effectively. Underpinning transactional leadership is the ability of leaders to recognise the demands, needs and wants of employees and fulfil them through rewards in exchange with their satisfactory performance. Therefore for head-teachers in Zanzibar to exercise transactional leadership they must possess the necessary legitimate and reward powers that will enable them to give rewards, particularly extrinsic rewards -

salaries increases, promotions and other forms of external rewards. Unfortunately, this is not the case since most human resource functions (selection, recruitment, appraisal and development, and compensation) that could facilitate them to reward their teachers are centrally controlled. Furthermore, centralisation of the key human resource management functions undermines the legitimate authority of head-teachers as teachers may think that they are more accountable to the central authorities than to their head-teachers.

With respect to instructional leadership, it seems to be well emphasised in Zanzibar just as it is in industrialised countries. However, the contextual conditions through which instructional leadership is implemented are very different. For example, while head-teachers in industrialised countries have considerable autonomy with respect to who teaches in their schools, their counterparts in Zanzibar have no option but to accept any teacher supplied by the central authorities. Similarly unlike their colleagues in industrialised countries, head-teachers in Zanzibar have no authority and resources at their disposal to assist them in key areas central to instructional leadership such as teachers' selection, recruitment, appraisal and development. Thus, head-teachers in Zanzibar are kept in a situation where they can exercise only the 'managerial' (e.g. ensuring staff perform their duties effectively) rather than the 'developmental' (e.g. staff development) aspect of instructional leadership. In a situation like Zanzibar where significant numbers of teachers are either untrained or under-qualified, the developmental aspect (professional development) is very crucial and denying head-teachers the necessary power and resources is therefore detrimental to quality improvement efforts. In short, while transactional and instructional leadership are perceived to be critical to effective school leadership in Zanzibar, the realities on the

ground do not warrant head-teachers to practice them confidently. For head-teachers to exercise transactional and instructional leadership they must be given the necessary legitimate, reward and expert power.

The emphasis put on management or transactional leadership that seems to be emphasised in Zanzibar is contrary to the current thinking where effective school leadership is highly associated with transformational leadership (Leithwood *et al.* 1999; Leithwood and Jantzi 2000), instructional leadership (Southworth 2005; Southworth 2002) or both (Marks and Printy 2003). However, Early and Weindling (2004:8) warned on the danger of putting too much emphasis on leadership (transformational leadership) at the expense of management (transactional leadership) since "leaders and managers are almost indistinguishable and both are needed for successful schools". Bush and Glover (2003: 10) contend that "schools require both visionary leadership and effective management". In other words both management and leadership are critical to effective school leadership. At this juncture, it is worth cautioning educators and policymakers in Zanzibar that too much emphasis on *management* (transactional leadership) that became evident in this study at the expense of *leadership* may in the long run be detrimental to effective school leadership. This is because as Zanzibar become more democratised and moves towards decentralisation, local governance, autonomy and participation in decision making will dominate and transactional leadership alone would not be able to serve the purpose. A more balanced approach to school leadership is called for where transactional, instructional, transformational and distributed leadership are recognised and given appropriate attention.

5.3.3 Centralisation vis-à-vis decentralisation

The third issue worth mentioning is the contradiction between the general findings in this study with regard to educational governance and the reality on the ground as far as effective school leadership is concerned. While the current educational governance structures embrace bureaucratic centralisation, the general views from stakeholders seem to favour decentralisation and devolution of authority. In this study, the emphasis on decentralisation and devolution of authority are quite prominent since various stakeholder groups identified and senior officials and head-teachers endorsed *'involvement of staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans; 'sharing of responsibilities and delegation of power and authority'*, and *'transparency and accountability'* as core features of effective school leadership. Thus, excessive centralisation is generally perceived to be detrimental to effective school leadership. This view is also supported by Bush (2003: 11) who contends that "highly centralised systems tend to be bureaucratic and to allow little discretion to schools and local communities" and Lauglo (1997: 5) who acknowledges that "bureaucratic centralism is pervasive in many developing countries". The policy decision to decentralise educational governance in Zanzibar is therefore a move in the right direction. However, the burning issue is to decide on aspects of educational governance that should remain centralised and those that should be devolved to lower levels particularly to schools and communities. This is an issue that warrants further investigation.

5.3.4 System focused vis-à-vis school/individual focussed CPD

The fourth issue concerns the different perceptions observed between senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) with respect to what they perceive to

be the most important head-teachers' competencies for demonstrating effective school leadership and the corresponding training priorities (see **5.2**). It is clear that if professional learning needs of head-teachers are based solely upon senior officials' (policymakers') views (top-down or system-focused approach), which is typical in highly centralised systems such as Zanzibar, the subsequent training and development programmes may not reflect the needs of head-teachers. For example competencies such as *ICT, research and analytical skills, statistics,* and *law (legal knowledge*) that were considered to be most important and of high training priority by the head-teachers would be left out if system-focused CPD dominates training and development programmes of head-teachers. Similarly, a competency such as '*managing change'* that is considered to be most important and of high training priority by senior officials would be left out if individual-focussed CPD dominates training and development programmes of head-teachers. Thus, it is evident in this study that in order to have effective training and development programmes of head-teachers, there is need to take into account the system, school and individual needs and therefore all parties must be involved in the training and development needs assessment exercises. The findings of this study are in line with the general view in the literature that effective CPD programmes are those that strike a fine balance between individual, school and system needs (Dempster 2001; Craft 1996).

5.3.5 Low priority given to human leadership skills

The last but not the least issue concerns the low priority both in terms of importance and training that the senior officials and head-teachers have accorded most competencies that could be associated with the human aspects of leadership. While the findings of this study seem to underscore the importance of head-teachers'

personal qualities in promoting effective school leadership (see **5.1.2.5**), both the senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) seem to underestimate the importance of the very skills that are crucial for enhancing such qualities. Despite some stakeholder groups identifying various competencies that could enhance the personal leadership qualities of head-teachers, majority of senior officials and head-teachers did not give them high rating both in terms of importance or training priorities. Competencies such as self management, conflict management and negotiating skills scored relatively low ratings in terms of their importance for effective school leadership from both senior officials and head-teachers (all of them scored for both groups mean values of less than 4.0) (see Appendices 4.5a and 4.5b) and the few that were selected to be so were not regarded as head-teachers' training priorities by both groups. This lack of attention on personal (e.g. self management) skills is contrary to the notion of emotional intelligence which is increasingly being recognised as indispensable for effective leadership in contemporary organisations including schools (see **2.1.6**). Similarly, the lack of attention to conflict management and negotiating skills is contrary to the general view that conflicts are inevitable in human organisations and therefore effective school leadership is closely linked with the ability of school leaders to be able to identify sources of such conflicts, recognise that conflicts are not necessarily bad things and manage them carefully and effectively so that they enhance rather than interrupt the achievement of desired goals. Everard *et al.* (2004) contend that the ability to handle conflict is a key factor in managerial success. While the importance of human leadership seems to be appreciated by policymakers and practitioners, they seem to take for granted that the related skills are probably part of the human nature and therefore need not to be considered in training and development programmes of head-teachers. Since this is

definitely not the case and because schools are basically human intensive, the role of human skills (personal and interpersonal) in facilitating effective school leadership cannot be overemphasised.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the discussion on the findings in two main sections. The first section discussed the findings related to effective school leadership. The second section discussed the findings related to professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar. Finally the chapter discussed the major issues that emerged as a result of these discussions. The conclusions drawn from these discussions, their implications for theory and practice and the subsequent recommendations are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

Following the presentation and discussion of the findings in Chapters 4 and 5 respectively, the purpose of this chapter is to present the conclusions to be drawn from this study and their implications for policy, practice and theory; and ultimately to suggest some recommendations. It starts in **6.1** with an overview of the whole research journey including a summary of the key findings. This is followed in **6.2** with the presentation of the main conclusions of the study. The implications of the study for policy and practice and corresponding recommendations are discussed in **6.3**, followed in **6.4** by discussion of the theoretical implications of the study. Section **6.5** presents proposed areas for further research followed in **6.6** by the researcher's reflections on the research process. Finally, in **6.7** the chapter ends with a concluding statement reflecting how this study managed to address the problem under investigation.

6.1 Summary of the study and key findings

6.1.1 Overview

The central aim of the study was to provide an understanding of effective school leadership as perceived by key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers), secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, students and parents, and its implications for the roles and professional training and development of secondary school head-teachers. The study

had six objectives which were operationalised through seven research questions. The research adopted a pragmatic philosophical stance and therefore used a sequential exploratory mixed-method strategy to get the desired information. Consequently, NGT and self-administered questionnaire were used to collect qualitative and quantitative data respectively. The Miles and Huberman's (1994) framework and the SPSS computer software package were used to analyse qualitative and quantitative data respectively. The main findings are summarised below with reference to the research objectives and their corresponding research questions.

6.1.2 Summary of the main findings

Objective 1: Present a critical review of literature on effective school leadership and professional development of school leaders.

It became evident in this study that most of the literature on effective school leadership and professional development of school leaders is from the industrialised countries of the West. In general, the review of the literature showed that there are many definitions and theories of leadership. However, despite the existence of many theories of leadership, the review showed that there is no singular overarching theory that could explain adequately the complexities of effective school leadership. With respect to professional learning of head-teachers, the literature showed that competence/competency-based models still dominate most training and development programmes and CPD is considered to be a life long process whereby head-teachers become responsible for their own learning and leaders of learning in their schools. It also showed that effective CPD programmes were those that met both system and

individual needs and adopted andragogical (adult learning) delivery approaches. However, there is a view expressed in the literature that western-based theories and practices are not universal and therefore when applied to developing countries they must be adapted to suit local conditions because "context matters" (Crossely and Watson: 2003; Fosket and Lumby: 2003). Consequently, conceptual pluralism, particularly Sergiovanni's (1991) leadership typology was used to conceptualise the study because it could potentially be adapted to suit local context and conditions.

Objective 2: Describe stakeholders' understandings of the meaning of effective school leadership.

This objective was operationalised through the following research questions:

RQ 1: What do key education stakeholders including secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, parents, students and MoEVT senior officials (policymakers) understand by the concept of effective school leadership?

RQ 4: What do secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) and MoEVT senior officials (policymakers) identify as the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership?

The stakeholder groups identified and the policymakers and practitioners confirmed several key features/characteristics of effective school leadership and it became evident in this study that to them effective school leadership meant:

- Improving academic achievement and getting good examination results of students
- Developing special teaching/learning strategies for improving academic performance of all students

- Securing community involvement and participation in school activities
- Developing realistic plans and ensuring successful implementation of those plans
- Securing high commitment of staff in the achievement of desired objectives
- Securing cooperative spirit and teamwork
- Bringing about harmony and unity amongst staff and students
- Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority among staff and students
- Ensuring effective and efficient utilisation of school funds
- Transparency in conducting school business
- Maintaining order and discipline
- Proper management of school records (see **4.1** and Table 4.3).

Objective 3: Describe stakeholders' perceptions of the actions that secondary school head-teachers should take to demonstrate effective school leadership.

This objective was operationalised through the following research questions:

RQ 2: What do these stakeholders think secondary school head-teachers should do in order to demonstrate effective school leadership?

RQ 5: What actions do the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?

Based upon Sergiovanni's leadership typology, the stakeholder groups identified and both the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) validated that for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership they should rely mainly on technical, human and educational

leadership forces (see **4.2** and Table 4.6 for the details of the head-teachers' actions associated with each leadership force).

Objective 4: Describe stakeholders' perceptions of the competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership.

This objective was operationalised through the following research questions:

RQ 3: What do these stakeholders think are the key competencies required by secondary school head-teachers to enable them to exercise effective school leadership?

RQ 6: *: What competencies do the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) identify as being necessary for secondary school head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership?*

Based upon Sergiovanni's leadership typology, the stakeholder groups identified and both the MoEVT' senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) validated that for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership they should have competencies in technical, human and educational leadership (see **4.3** and Table 4.9 for details of the head-teachers' competencies associated with each leadership force).

Objective 5: Describe the perceptions of MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) concerning the priorities for professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers.

This objective was operationalised through the following research question:

RQ 7: What are the perceptions of the MoEVT' senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) concerning the priorities for professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers?

From the list of competencies identified above, both the MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and the secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) identified several competencies and resulting training priorities required of secondary school head-teachers. These competencies were primarily associated with technical and educational leadership at the expense of human leadership (see **4.4** and Table 4.11 for details of the competencies associated with each leadership force).

Objective 6: Develop a preliminary analysis of the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers

The achievement of this objective was based on the premise that effective CPD is one which strikes a balance between system, organisational and individual needs. The study revealed two aspects of professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers. The first aspect is the professional learning needs of aspiring head-teachers and these involved the competencies that were considered to be most important for effective school leadership by MoEVT's senior officials (reflecting system needs) and secondary school head-teachers (reflecting school/individual needs) (see **4.3** and Table 4.9). The second aspect is the professional learning needs of practising head-teachers and these involved those competencies that were identified as training priorities by senior officials and head-teachers (see **4.4** and Table 4.11).

6.2 Conclusions

Based on its findings and subsequent discussions, the study draws the following conclusions:

i. In general, there are some shared understandings amongst Zanzibar key education stakeholders including senior education officials (policymakers), head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, parents and students on how they interpret the meaning of effective school leadership. However, when it comes to prioritisation, different stakeholders emphasise different things.

ii. Based upon Sergiovanni's typology of leadership, the key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including MoEVT's senior officials, (policymakers), secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, students and parents associate effective school leadership more with technical, human and educational leadership than with symbolic and cultural leadership. In other words, *management* rather than *leadership* seems to dominate the mindsets of Zanzibar key education stakeholders. Consequently effective school leadership is closely associated with transactional and instructional leadership.

iii. Based upon Sergiovanni's typology of leadership, the key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including MoEVT's senior officials, (policymakers), secondary school head-teachers (practitioners), teachers, students and parents associate effective school leadership with mastery of

competencies that are associated with technical, human, and educational leadership.

iv. There are significant differences between the senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) when it comes to training and development priorities for secondary school head-teachers. This is probably because the senior officials would most likely prioritise competencies that reflect system needs while head-teachers would most likely prioritise their own or schools' needs. Despite these differences, both groups seem to prioritise competencies associated with technical and educational leadership at the expense of human leadership.

v. Too much centralisation of the educational governance structure seems to be undermining the authority of head-teachers in exercising the perceived effective (transactional and instructional) leadership. For example too much centralisation of key human resource (recruitment and selection, appraisal and development, promotion and compensation) and financial management functions denies the head-teachers the necessary power to reward or discipline staff and resources to develop and implement school-based improvement programmes.

vi. In general, the findings of this study do not reflect the current thinking in the effective school leadership and leadership preparation literature where both leadership and management are considered to be necessary for effective school leadership and consequently effective school leadership is

closely associated with the ability of head-teachers to exercise transactional, transformational, instructional and distributed leadership effectively.

6.3 Implications for policy and practice

The findings and conclusions of this study have several implications for policy and practice. Some of the implications and the subsequent recommendations are as follows:

i. This study has shown that effective school leadership is a complex process since despite the similarities, there are significant differences amongst various stakeholders on various aspects of effective school leadership that were investigated (see **5.3.1**). These may have several implications for school leadership and training and for any future development programme for head-teachers. The similarities present a positive picture and show the degree of consensus on some issues. However, because education is always politically contested, the differences present a threatening situation in as much as they may be potential sources of conflict and tension. Both these scenarios underscore the need for MoEVT to institutionalise mechanisms that will facilitate greater consultations and participation of various stakeholders in its effort to improve education standards in Zanzibar. The consultations amongst key education stakeholders will facilitate reaching consensus on what could otherwise be controversial educational issues (for example, national educational goals, content of the curriculum, autonomy versus accountability, centralisation versus decentralisation, etc). All these issues impact on what head-teachers

should do and what competencies they should have and their implications for effective school leadership and training and development programmes of head-teachers cannot therefore be overemphasised. Therefore, it is recommended that MoEVT establishes a Zanzibar Education Stakeholders Forum (ZESF) whose mandate will be to discuss various educational themes and issues and accordingly advise MoEVT on various measures to be taken to improve educational standards in Zanzibar. The forum should be constituted by government policymakers, politicians, teachers' union, non-governmental organisations, faith-based organisations, teachers' professional associations, students' organisations, private schools' associations, and other relevant stakeholders.

ii. The findings of this study have shown that effective school leadership in Zanzibar is closely associated with technical, human and educational leadership and symbolic and cultural leadership have not received much attention (see **5.3.2**). Sergiovanni (1991) associates technical, human and aspects of educational leadership with transactional leadership ('*management*'); and cultural, symbolic and aspects of educational leadership with transformational leadership ('*leadership*'). According to Sergiovanni (1991: 112) "technical, human and (aspects of) educational leadership forces are essential to competent schooling, and their absence contributes to ineffectiveness" but stresses that "the fact and strength of their presence alone ... are not sufficient to bring about success in schooling". He contends that "cultural, symbolic, and aspects of educational leadership forces are essential for success in schooling"

though "their absence ... does not appear to have a negative impact on routine competence" (*ibid* p.112). Thus both management and leadership are necessary for successful schooling. There are several implications for effective school leadership and training and development of school leaders particularly head-teachers. First, as already discussed, (see chapter 5) head-teachers in Zanzibar are not in a position to exercise technical, human, and educational leadership effectively and efficiently because they lack the necessary power, authority, and resources. Second, even if they are granted the necessary power, authority and resources, a majority of them would find it difficult to exercise these aspects of school leadership because they lack the necessary competencies. It is therefore clear that without having the necessary power, authority, resources and competencies to exercise transactional leadership effectively and efficiently, head-teachers may fail even to maintain the status quo. Consequently, there is a danger that schools may move towards ineffectiveness and head-teachers may not even achieve what Sergiovanni (1991) has called *'competent schooling'*. Second, despite stakeholders' acknowledgment of some aspects of transformational leadership such as securing high commitment of staff, head-teachers in Zanzibar are not in a position to exercise it because current circumstances (lack of individual school budgets, centralisation of key human resource management functions, etc) do not allow them to articulate shared visions and resultant strategic plans that they may use to inculcate the necessary school culture and values necessary for securing such a commitment. Therefore, if *successful* rather then *competent* schooling is desired which is obviously

the case, then, in addition to technical, human and educational leadership, special emphasis needs to be put on both symbolic and cultural leadership. In other words there is a need to put equal emphasis on transactional, instructional as well as transformational leadership. Moreover, as already discussed, and also in the spirit of the new policy of decentralisation, it would demand restructuring of the role of head-teachers so as to give them the necessary autonomy and establishment of CPD programmes that would enable head-teachers to be competent in exercising the various aspects of effective school leadership. However, in order to address the weaknesses that are associated with both transactional and transformational leadership (such as being dependent upon a single heroic, manipulative leader and the absence often of a sound ethical base for leadership), the above aspects of leadership should be complemented by putting an equal emphasis on distributed and ethical leadership. The new emphasis particularly on transformational, distributed and ethical leadership would definitely require a change in mindsets of key education stakeholders particularly policymakers (MoEVT senior officials) and practitioners (head-teachers) from the already prevalent transactional (managerial) leadership perspective to a new perspective that embraces transactional, transformational, instructional, distributed and ethical leadership. For example, senior officials would need to change from being too bureaucratic and authoritative to being more supportive and facilitative so as to create an enabling environment for head-teachers to exercise their autonomy confidently and efficiently. Similarly, the head-teachers would need to change from being reactive and mere recipients of directives from

the central authorities to being proactive and innovative leaders and professionals who make key decisions but at the same time become accountable for their actions.

iii. The findings of this study have shown that effective school leadership is a complex process which requires school leaders to possess special competencies including knowledge, skills and personal attributes (see **4.3** and **5.2.1**). These findings have implications for the recruitment, training and development of head-teachers. The current system of appointing head-teachers on the basis of seniority and/or good classroom practices does not guarantee recruitment of competent school leaders since competencies that are needed to be a good teacher are different from those of a good school leader or manager. As Zanzibar moves towards decentralisation of educational governance as per requirement of the new Zanzibar Education Policy (MoEVT 2006), the roles of head-teachers would have to change dramatically from the current situation where they appear to be mere public servants placed in schools to implement orders from central authorities to school leaders with power and authority to make key decisions that are crucial for school improvement and raising the educational achievement of all students. This changing role of head-teachers would imply that the recruitment and selection of school leaders be based on 'competencies' (knowledge, skills and values) rather than 'seniority' and/or 'best classroom practice' criteria. Therefore, there is also a need for a new recruitment, selection, training and development policy for school leaders in order to ensure that practicing and aspiring

school leaders possess the necessary competencies to drive their schools to the desired levels of excellence. The implementation of such a policy would require putting into place the *'standards'* of school leaders through which desired competencies and job descriptions could be defined and training and development programmes be developed. The use of *'standards'* for school leaders is becoming a world wide phenomena and Zanzibar can learn a lot from experiences of countries such as the UK, Australia, Hong Kong and Singapore. Although, this study has identified key education stakeholders' perceptions of head-teachers' actions and competencies crucial for effective school leadership that could form a basis for developing such standards, they may not be sufficient since they might be simply reflecting the current status quo rather than the future desired situation. For example, the envisaged decentralisation and more autonomy to schools would demand head-teachers to be competent in articulating shared visions of their schools, inculcating a culture of learning by making schools to be learning organisations, instructional leadership, emotional intelligence, budgeting, human resource management functions and many others. Further work should be carried out to identify school leaders' actions and competencies that could ultimately culminate into *'standards'* of schools leaders that are robust enough to address current and *future* challenges of school leadership.

iv. The findings and subsequent discussions in this study suggest that in order to exercise effective school leadership head-teachers must be transparent and accountable to their stakeholders (see **5.1.1.3**). The key education

stakeholders' demands for transparency and accountability of head-teachers have implications for the current educational governance structure in Zanzibar and ultimately the training and development programmes of head-teachers. This is because transparency and accountability must be commensurate with the necessary autonomy to make key decisions, which in turn requires head-teachers to master the necessary competencies for exercising their autonomy confidently, effectively, efficiently and transparently. The current highly centralised educational governance structure deprives the head-teachers of such autonomy. Therefore, it implies that in order to make head-teachers accountable to their stakeholders, they must be given the necessary autonomy to make decisions particularly in key areas that are crucial for bringing about school improvements and raising the educational achievement of all students. Fortunately, the issue of school autonomy resonates very well with the new education policy which amongst other things advocates the decentralisation of educational governance (MoEVT 2006) and the world wide trend towards school-based management (World Bank 2005). Because of the small nature of the Zanzibar islands, it is logical that the decentralisation should aim at school-based management (SBM) since decentralisation up to regional or district level only may not benefit the schools as it may imply merely shifting the "centre" from the MoEVT to the regional or district headquarters. Consequently, the post of headship would need to be revisited so that head-teachers are treated as professionals and leaders with responsibility and authority to make decisions in their schools, while at the same time holding them

accountable for their actions. For example, through SBM schools may be given autonomy with respect to key functions such as development and implementation of school improvement plans (SIP) in line with national education policies and objectives; human resource management including recruitment, selection, appraisal and development of staff; and budget preparation and management. Accordingly, the CPD of head-teachers should also aim at enabling head-teachers to be competent in performing such functions. The biggest challenge ahead is to strike an appropriate balance between central control and local autonomy. A study that could help policymakers to strike such a balance would be very helpful.

v. This study has found that key education stakeholders in Zanzibar closely associate effective school leadership with proper management of school records and good discipline of staff and students (see **5.1.1.5** and **5.1.1.4**). The implications for effective school leadership and head-teachers' CPD are that head-teachers must put great emphasis on issues related to effective and efficient management of key school records and promotion of staff and student discipline. However, the lack of relevant policies and training pose a great challenge to the head-teachers on how they should go about handling these issues. For example, they may be need training in to what type of records should be kept or maintained and for how long or what type of records needs confidential treatment and for how long. Similarly, they may require guidance/support/training on what types of disciplinary measures need to be taken and for what offences. Thus, with

consultation with relevant stakeholders, it is recommended that MoEVT formulate school records and behaviour management policies.

vi. This study has demonstrated that both the senior officials (policymakers) and secondary school head-teachers (practitioners) seem to undervalue the importance of head-teachers' human skills such as personal/self-management, interpersonal and conflict management skills (see **5.3.5**). In other words their awareness on emotional intelligence (EQ) (see **5.1.2.5**) is rather low. However, as recognised by the National Association of Head-teachers of the UK (2006: 9),

> The understanding and appropriate application of emotional intelligence (EQ) is key to effective school leadership. As challenges, demands and complexities of the head-teacher's role increase, this competence will continue to be the foundation of dynamic, successful and effective school leadership.

It has to be realised that schools are human intensive organisations and therefore successful achievement of desired goals depends very much upon the extent to which leaders are able to communicate effectively with the rest of the members in the organisation and vice versa, and head-teachers' personal and interpersonal skills play an important role in facilitating such communications. Furthermore, when the autonomy of schools increases (as anticipated under the new Zanzibar education policy), articulating and communicating a shared vision and inculcating a culture of learning in their schools would become extremely important roles for head-teachers; but they would not be able to do so successfully if they lack the desired personal and interpersonal skills. The implication for effective school leadership and training and development of head-teachers is that head-teachers must be able to understand and use EQ appropriately

and since EQ can be learned and enhanced, it must be part and parcel of CPD programmes for head-teachers.

vii. This study has shown that while local conceptualisations of issues are very important, there is also a danger of overlooking relevant experiences and practices from other contexts. In the current era of globalisation, learning from others' experiences becomes inevitable particularly for low income countries which need to raise their educational standards in order to be competitive in the global world economy. For example, if one sticks strictly to the findings of this study, one could easily overlook the importance of school culture or emotional intelligence in facilitating effective school leadership. The importance of these elements have been realised through reading relevant literature. Thus, in institutionalising training and development programmes of school leaders, the training needs assessment exercise should involve key education stakeholders (including practicing head-teachers, education policymakers, teachers, parents and students) as well as relevant international literature on effective school leadership. Another strategy could be giving the head-teachers relevant exposure through education visits to other countries that have recorded successful stories of effective school leadership practices and CPD programmes of school leaders. These measures will ensure that the training and development programmes of head-teachers accommodate local conceptualisation as well as current international thinking and practices in effective school leadership.

6.4 Implications for theory

The conceptual framework for this study was informed by the Sergiovanni's leadership typology and competence/competency-based CPD of head-teachers. The emergent findings show that it is possible to combine the Sergiovanni's leadership typology and competency model of CDP to develop a single model for understanding effective school leadership and professional learning of head-teachers. The proposed model is shown in Figure 6.1.

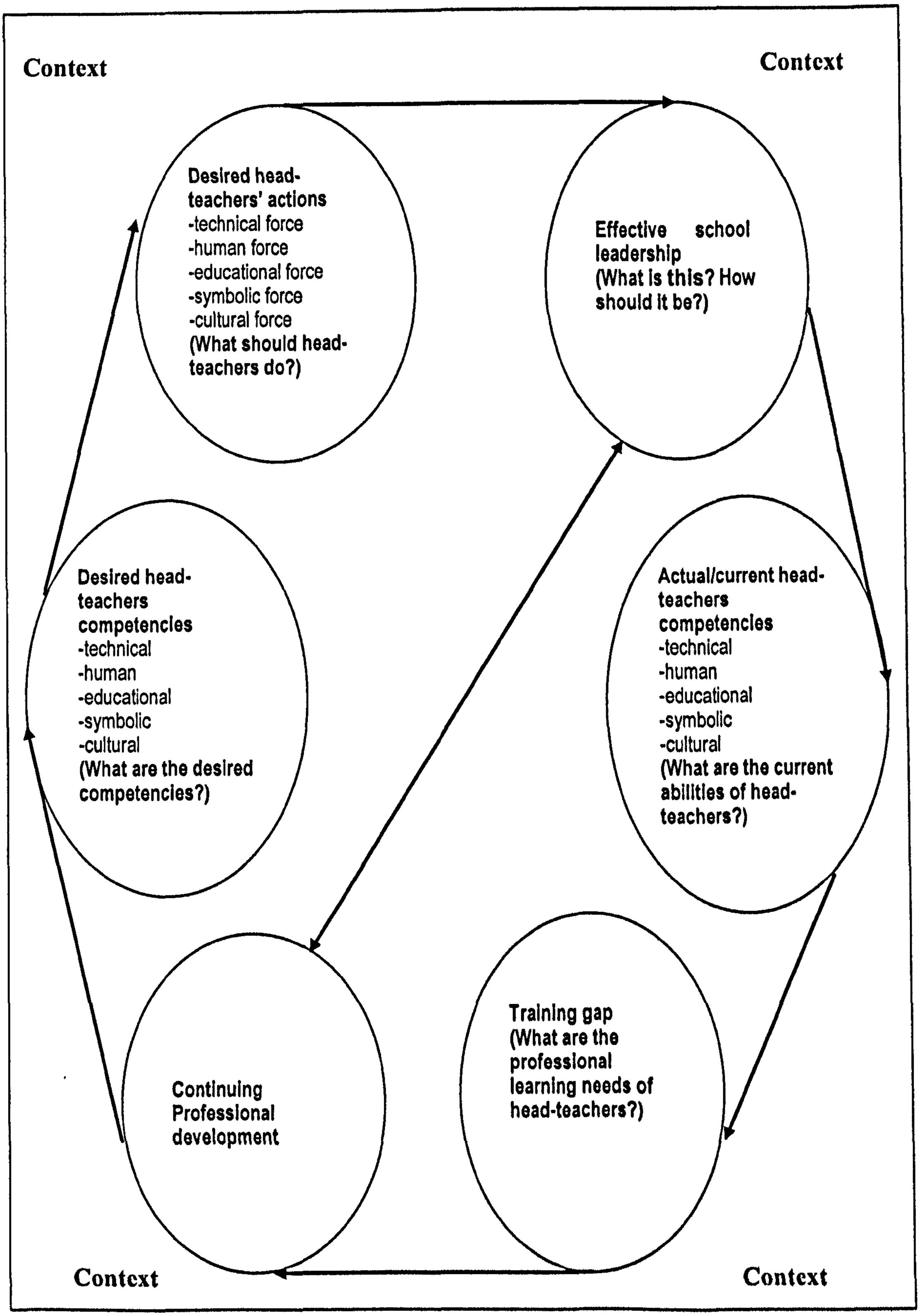

Figure 6.1: Proposed model for understanding effective school leadership and head-teachers' professional learning needs

A key feature of the model is that it seeks to take account of the social, economic, and cultural context of leadership and could therefore be applied in variety of contexts and situations. For example, the question posed in each oval could be responded to according to the circumstances of the particular context. The model also recognises the dynamic nature of school leadership, since, depending upon prevailing local and global contextual conditions the meanings attached to effective school leadership may change and accordingly the head-teachers actions and competencies for demonstrating effective school leadership would inevitably have to change. Consequently CPD of head-teachers would have to be revisited and redeveloped to accommodate new demands and challenges faced by school leaders. That is why the model shows a direct link between effective school leadership and CPD of head-teachers.

6.5 Proposed areas for further research

There are several pertinent issues that have emerged during the course of the study but were beyond the scope of the study to address. Therefore, it is proposed that further research be carried out with respect to the following issues.

i. This study has shown that symbolic/cultural leadership has not received much attention in Zanzibar. However, since every organisation must have its own culture, and developing and sustaining a school culture conducive to effective teaching and learning is a *sine qua non* of effective school leadership, there is need to conduct a research that will enable policymakers and head-teachers to understand both the positive and negative aspects of school culture that are prevalent in Zanzibar schools.

ii. This study has demonstrated that while there seem to be a general awareness amongst MoEVT's senior officials (policymakers) and head-teachers (practitioners) concerning the role of stakeholders (particularly teachers, parents, students and the community in general) in school improvement, there is a lack of clear understanding on what type of stakeholders' involvement and participation could bring about the most desired impact. Therefore, there is a need to conduct research that could help policymakers and practitioners to understand the nature and extent of stakeholders' (particularly teachers, students and parents) involvement and participation in school improvement and in improving students' outcomes in particular.

iii. The findings of this study generally support the new education policy initiative to decentralise educational governance in Zanzibar. The study has also recommended that because of the small nature of the islands the focus of decentralisation should be on school-based management. Therefore, there is need to conduct research that could guide policymakers to identify what aspects of educational governance should be decentralised to school level and which ones should remain at the centre.

iv. This study has justified the need to have training and development programmes for both aspiring and practising head-teachers; but the issue of how the training and development programmes should be conducted was beyond the scope of this study. There is a need to carry out a study that will help policymakers to identify the most effective and efficient

training and development programme for head-teachers in Zanzibar. The study should take account of the fact that both aspiring and practicing head-teachers are adults and therefore they will be more motivated if their learning is based on andragogical (adult learning) approaches (Knowles 1980) and adult theories of learning (Kolb 1984).

6.6 Reflections on the research process

The methodology employed in this study had both its strengths and limitations. The use of NGT and self-administered questionnaire survey proved very useful in the following ways:

i. As an internal researcher and chief executive of MoEVT where the research took place, the biggest challenge was to deal with the issue of power relations between the researcher and the participants. The use of NGT and questionnaire survey allowed the participants to work independently without fear and influence of the researcher or fellow participants.

ii. To the participants in the NGT interviews it was like a seminar exposing them to the challenges and complexities of school leadership. It was therefore useful not just as a research technique/method but in its own right as providing a rare opportunity for participants to articulate their views on leadership issues. The NGT interviews gave them an opportunity to exchange views and ideas with their peers and recommended that such

opportunities be extended to their colleagues who did not participate in the study.

iii. Similarly, the policymakers (MoEVT's senior officials) and practitioners (head-teachers) found the questionnaire survey instrument (whose construction was based on the views of key education stakeholders in Zanzibar) an important document as it enabled them to reflect on how they exercise effective school leadership, and on their own competencies and professional learning needs. Consequently most head-teachers and senior officials asked if they could photocopy the instrument for their own use, a request that was granted.

The study had the following limitations:

i. The stakeholder groups' reasons behind their preferred choices of responses to the various questions posed in the study are not very explicit. Follow up open-ended or semi-structured interviews to some members of the stakeholder groups might have been useful to probe the thinking behind their responses.

ii. Although the target was to have 10-12 participants in the NGT interviews, some groups had 13-14 participants which is slightly larger than the recommended figure of about 6-12 participants (Morgan 1988). The slightly larger groups were inevitable since over recruiting was done deliberately to compensate for any absentees. However, most participants

attended and consequently the slightly larger groups might have affected the group dynamics and ultimately the quality of the data collected.

iii. Though the questionnaire survey covered both islands that make up Zanzibar, because of financial and accessibility reasons the participants for the NGT group interviews were recruited from one island only. Similarly the questionnaire survey was extended to only two instead of five stakeholder groups that were involved in the NGT interviews. The quality of findings would have been further enriched if participants of the NGT interviews were recruited from both islands and the questionnaire survey was extended to the remaining stakeholders (teachers, students and parents).

iv. The participants of this study were drawn from public secondary schools only and therefore the findings may not be generalised to public primary schools or private schools.

In short, despite the acknowledged limitations above, the NGT and the self-administered questionnaire proved to be appropriate instruments of data collection particularly for internal researchers since other direct face to face methods such as individual and focus groups interviews may have proved inhibitive to both the researcher and the participants. However, being the chief executive and one of the policymakers of the organisation through which the study was conducted, the researcher acknowledges that his own values, past experiences in the organisation and his insightfulness into the future of education in Zanzibar might have influenced the

interpretation of the findings, and ultimately the drawing of conclusions and recommendations. For example, the researcher is very well aware that effective school leadership is not a sole responsibility of the head-teacher, but for it to be realised he strongly believes that head-teachers must be in the driver's seat. Similarly, the researcher believe that since teaching and learning are the core business of the school, head-teachers should be exemplary in showing that they can still cut the mustard by involving themselves in teaching/learning activities.

6.7 Concluding statement

This study was conducted on the premise that effective school leadership is critical to education quality improvement and it could be developed through effective training and development programmes of school leaders particularly head-teachers. In the current era of globalisation and supremacy of the knowledge economy, good quality education is necessary for enabling societies to survive and prosper in the competitive global market. Schools have a role of educating and developing all children to their full potential so that they become responsible citizens who can face confidently the challenges of globalisation and ultimately contribute positively to the social and economic development of their societies. To play this role effectively, contemporary schools demand effective school leadership and therefore need head-teachers who can respond positively towards the ever-changing educational needs brought forward by both local and global changes; and to do so effectively and efficiently head-teachers must have the desired competencies (knowledge, skills and values) and autonomy to make key decisions.

This study has made some contribution towards the better understanding of school leadership currently prevailing in Zanzibar. It has also provided insights into how the current situation of school leadership could be changed for the better by both the restructuring of educational governance and enabling head-teachers to acquire the desired competencies for effective school leadership through relevant CPD programmes. Furthermore, it has come up with a model that could be used to conceptualise effective school leadership and professional learning needs of head-teachers in a variety of contexts, thus making a contribution towards the ongoing debate on what constitutes effective school leadership practices and what forms of school leadership training and development result in better school improvements and outcomes for all students. It is hoped that the findings of this study will pave the way towards recognising head-teachers as executive leaders and leading professionals of their schools that deserve to be given autonomy to make key decisions and towards institutionalising effective and efficient school leadership training and development programmes that will enable them to be more effective in their leadership.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1.1: Zanzibar Socioeconomic and Educational Context

The Socioeconomic Context

Zanzibar comprises the two main islands of Unguja (also referred to as Zanzibar) and Pemba and a number of smaller islets along the western rim of the Indian Ocean. It is part of the United Republic of Tanzania (See Figure A1).

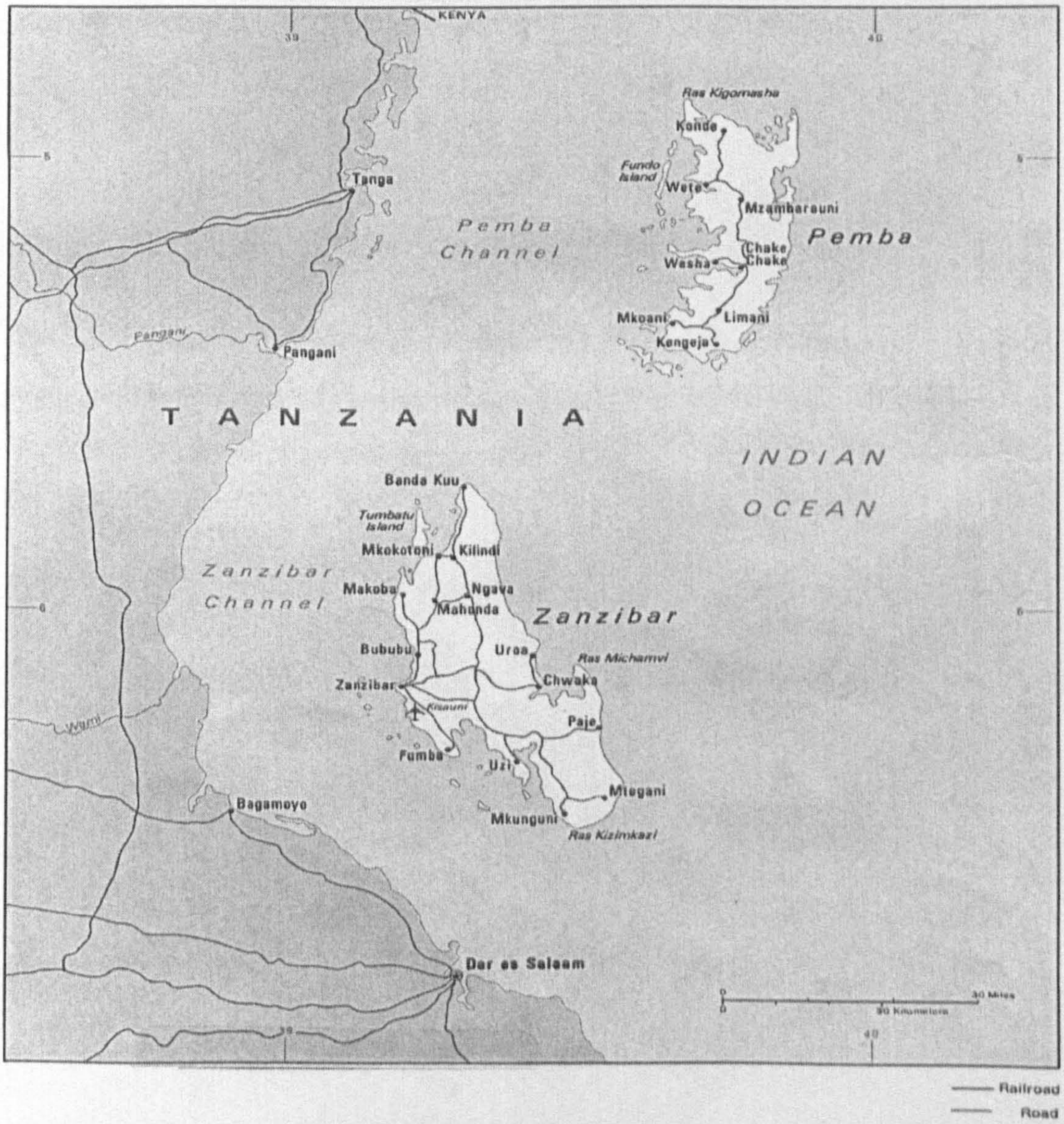


Figure A.1: Map of Zanzibar (Unguja and Pemba)

For about 130 years (1830-1964), Zanzibar was ruled by the Arab oligarchy from Oman under the leadership of the Sultan. In 1890, Great Britain reached an agreement

with the Sultan, legally making Zanzibar a British protectorate with Britain assuming full control of the islands in 1914. The British administration granted Zanzibar its independence in December 1961 with the Sultan still continuing to be the ruler of Zanzibar. This was unacceptable to the African majority and became an immediate cause for a revolution. Consequently, the Africans majority overthrew the Arab oligarchy on 12th January 1964. Four months later, Zanzibar merged with Tanganyika to form the United Republic of Tanzania. However, with exception of a few union matters such as foreign policy, defence and internal security, immigration, monetary issues, customs and excise, and higher education, Zanzibar retains its autonomy over all non-union maters. Therefore, it has its own legislature, judiciary and an executive (the Revolutionary Council) which is streamlined into various Ministries such as education and vocational training, health and social welfare, finance and economic affairs, transport and communications, and many others. It follows a multiparty democracy and the President, members of the parliament (House of Representatives) and the councillors are elected through popular vote every five years.

The islands have a total area of about 2332 square kilometres (1,464 square kilometres for Unguja and 868 square kilometres for Pemba). Administratively, it has five regions (three in Unguja and two in Pemba) each with two districts. The whole country is divided into 50 constituencies with each constituency divided into smaller administrative units called *shehias*. A *shehia*, the lowest administrative unit, is a demarcated area in the urban areas or a village or a collection of villages in rural areas with a total population of about a thousand inhabitants. According to 2002 population census, Zanzibar had a population of about 981,754 growing at 3.1% per annum. Islam is the dominant religion for more than 90% of the population and the culture of the islands is highly influenced by Islamic values. Other common religions include Christianity and Hinduism. Swahili is the national and official language and is the medium of instruction in primary schools. English is the second official language and the medium of instruction in secondary schools and higher education institutions.

Zanzibar is a low income country with agriculture and fishing being the major occupations of the majority of its people. For many years, it had a monoculture economy where cloves used to account for more than 90% of the total foreign exchange earnings. Because of the decline in local production of cloves and drastic

fall in prices of cloves in the world market in the 1980s, the economic and social development of Zanzibar has been severely affected, resulting in the deterioration of quality of various social services including health and education. To arrest the situation, the government initiated various economic policies and reforms in late 1980s with considerable emphasis placed on trade and tourism. These policies had been showing positive effects on the economy. For example, over the past three years (2003-2006), Zanzibar's economy has been growing at an average of 6%. Despite the economic growth, the GDP per capita is very small (about US$ 300) and poverty is still prevailing for the majority of its population. Consequently, development assistance plays a major role in the social and economic development of the country. The blue prints that guide the social and economic development of Zanzibar are the Zanzibar Development Vision 2020 and the Zanzibar Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction.

Educational Context

Administration of Education

The responsibility to plan and administer education in Zanzibar is currently entrusted to the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) under the Minister responsible for education. The chief executive officer of the Ministry is the Principal Secretary, who is currently assisted by a deputy principal secretary and two commissioners, one responsible professional services and the other for policy, planning and research.

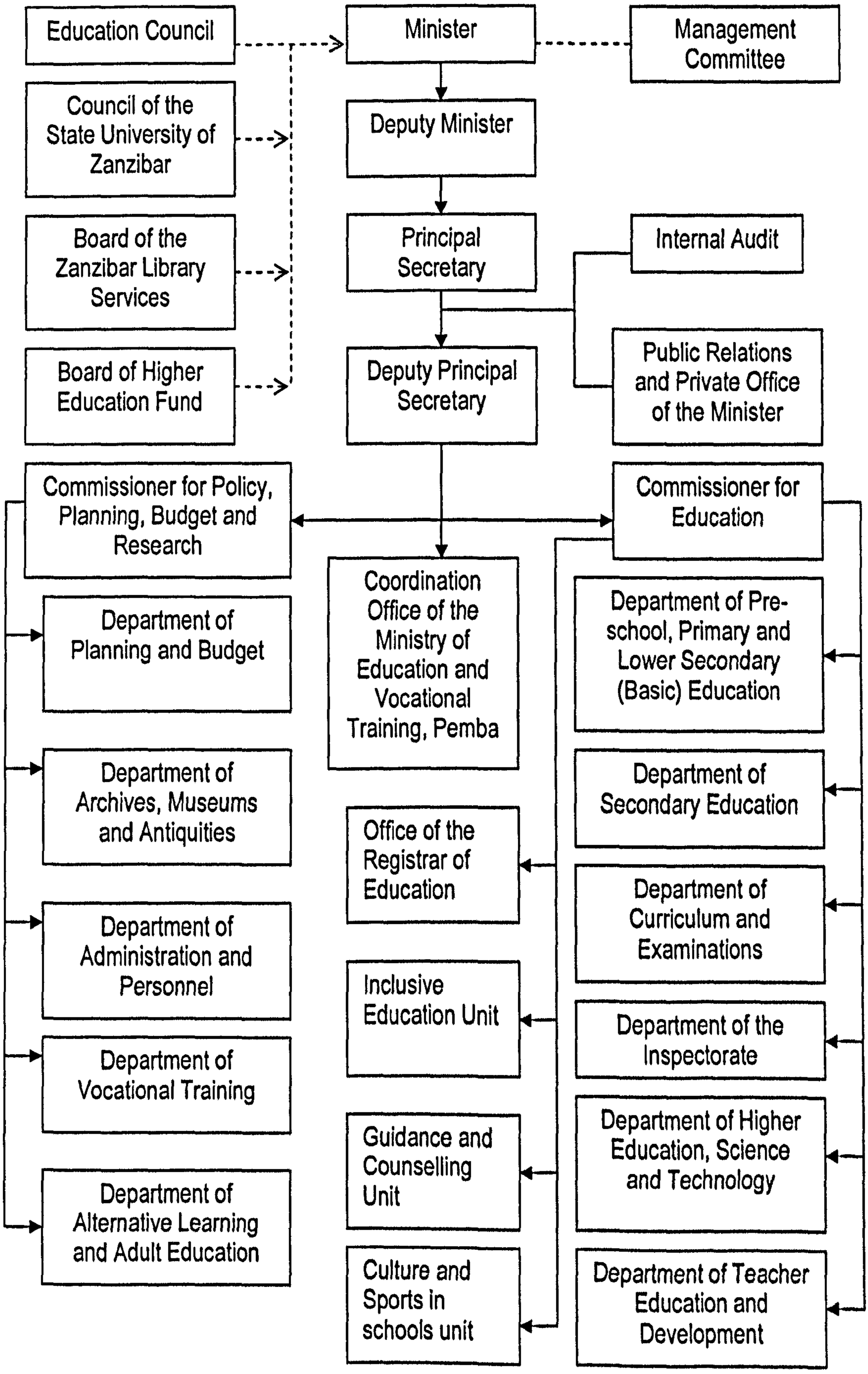
There are also 12 directors who head various departments. The Ministry has its coordinating office in Pemba under the Officer in Charge. There are also regional and district offices throughout the islands. These offices are headed by regional and district officers who are administratively answerable to regional and district governments respectively but professionally responsible to MoEVT. Despite the existence of regional and district educations officers, Zanzibar has a highly centralised education system. Furthermore, there are national, regional and district education boards which advise the Minister responsible for education on matters related to educational developments in their jurisdictions.

At school level, there are School Committees which are responsible for overseeing education developments in their respective schools. The chairperson of the committee is appointed by the respective District Commissioner and the head-teacher is the secretary of the committees. Other members of the committee are appointed by the District Commissioner and some are appointed by the parents. There is also a student government which is elected democratically by all students in the school.

There are also two parastatal organisations under the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. These are the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) whose activities are overseen by the Council of the University and the Department of Library Services whose services are overseen by the Library Services Board. The Council and the Board report directly to the Minister responsible for Education. The current organisational structure of the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training is as shown in Figure A.2.

The highest decision making body of the Ministry is the Management Committee (MC). The Minister and the Principal Secretary are the chairperson and secretary of the committee respectively. Other members of the committee include the Deputy Minister, the Deputy Principal Secretary, the commissioners, all the directors, the officer in Charge of Education in Pemba and the Ministry's Chief Accountant.

Figure A2: Organisational Structure of the Ministry Of Education and Vocational Training 2006



Formal Structure of the Education System

The current structure of the Zanzibar formal education system is 3-7-3-2-2-3+ structure, that is three years of pre-primary education for 4-6 year-olds, seven years of primary education (Standard I-VII) for 7-13 year olds, three years of first cycle lower secondary education (Orientation secondary class, Form 1 and Form 2) for 14-16 year olds, second cycle lower secondary education (Form 3-4) for 17-18 year olds, two years of advanced level secondary education (Form 5-6) for 19-20 year olds. The seven years of primary and three years of lower secondary education constitute the ten years of universal and compulsory basic education. Students who fail to continue with advanced secondary education may join post-secondary institutions for a two and three year certificate and diploma course in various disciplines including teaching, health sciences, agriculture, financial administration, hotel management and tourism. Similarly, those who fail to continue with university level education may opt to continue with diploma and advanced diploma courses in various disciplines. Following the new Zanzibar education policy declared in 2006, the current structure is being phased out in order to pave way for the new 2-6-4-2-3+ (two years of pre-school education, six years of primary education, four years of lower secondary education, two years of advanced secondary education and three years or more of higher education. Under the new structure compulsory basic education is comprised of 12 years, that is, 2-6-4 (two years of pre-school, six years of primary and four years of lower secondary education.

Table A1 and A2 provide the number and type of educational institutions, and the enrolment of students at various levels for the year 2006. Table A3 provides the breakdown of the performance of students in national examinations for the last five years (2002-2006).

Table A1: Types of educational institutions 2006

Type	Public	Private	Total
Pre-primary	25	160	185
Primary only	109	26	135
Mixed Primary and secondary	109	22	139
Secondary only	64	4	68
Post-secondary institutions	7	0	7
Universities	1	2	3

Table A2 Enrolments at different levels of education for the year 2006

Education level and age group	School-age population	Public school enrolment	Private school enrolment	% of enrolment in public schools	Gross Enrolment Rate (%)
Pre-school (4-6 year olds)	107421	3870	12456	23.7%	15.2
Primary (7-13 year olds)	223,199	201867	7374	96.5%	93.7%
Lower secondary (14-18 year olds)	182,280	69525	2731	96.2%	39.6%
Advanced secondary (19-20 year olds)	50,318	2,871	256	91.8%	6.2%

Table A3: Academic Performance of Students in National Examinations (2002–2005)

Year	Zanzibar National Form 2 Examination		Tanzania National Form 4 Examination	
	Number of candidates	Number and percentage of students passed	Number of candidates	Number and percentage who passed at Division 1 – 3 levels*
2002	8285	3125 37.7%	3285	439 13.4%
2003	9969	4001 40.1%	3539	671 19.0%
2004	10835	4672 43.1%	4286	1019 23.8%
2005	13355	6359 47.6%	5389	1007 18.7%
2006	15003	7587 50.6%	6334	1052 16.6%

* These are normally students who qualify for advanced secondary or technical education. Majority of the remaining candidates pass at Division 4 level and a significant number get Div 0 which is a 'Fail' grade.

Financing of Education

The government is the main financier and provider of education. With the exception of pre-primary education which is mainly delivered through private and community-based providers, private participation in education is minimal. In principle, public education is free at all levels. On the average, the government recurrent expenditure on education has been about 4.0% of GDP and 19.0% of total government recurrent

expenditure over the last two years. However, the budget is not sufficient to meet the ever increasing demands of education and in recent years cost sharing strategies have been put into place to supplement government funds. Based on ability and willingness to pay, parents and communities are encouraged to contribute voluntarily towards the development of education in their respective schools. Voluntary contributions could be in the form of cash or in kind such as labour and purchase of materials including uniforms and stationeries. Loan schemes are also available for students who wish to pursue higher education.

Highlights of the Constraints and Challenges of the Education Sector

According to the Zanzibar Education Sector Country Status Report (ZRG: 2003) (as cited in World Bank (2007): *Tanzania Zanzibar Basic Education Improvement Project*), the major constraints and challenges facing the Zanzibar education system include:

- Increasing public spending on basic education and improving efficient utilisation of increases financial resources.
- Combating the general level of poverty in the economy so that parents are able to send their children to schools and keeping them in school until completion of full cycle.
- Improving the quality of the system delivery through improving teacher training and motivation, improving the quantity and quality of teaching and learning materials, improving the conditions of school buildings and furniture, and increasing the number of classrooms.
- Shifting the emphasis from rapid quantitative delivery and sustaining enrolment of children and keeping them to full cycle.
- Building strong partnership of stakeholders involved in education and training provision and financing.
- Improving the transition rate to second cycle lower secondary education through constructing more classrooms in order to 'motivate' pupils in basic education.
- Expediting the process of formulating vocational education and training policy and initiating short term competence based training programmes in the existing vocational training centres.
- Striking the balance between the needs of the various groups involved, including children with disabilities, children with social and emotional problems, as well as the gifted and average children.
- Addressing the emerging challenge of HIV/AIDS epidemic together with the challenges of drug abuse, early marriage and teenage pregnancies. (HIV/AIDS in particular has the potential of impacting negatively through reducing teacher force, incapacitating the support of parents, increasing the number of orphans, etc).

Highlights of the New Zanzibar Education Policy

In 2006, the Zanzibar Government declared a new education policy (ZRG: 2006). The major highlights of the policy (as cited in World Bank (2007): *Tanzania Zanzibar Basic Education Improvement Project*) include:

- Changing the structure of the education system from the current 3-7-3-2 (three years of preschool education fro 4 - 6 year olds, seven years of primary education for 7 - 13 year-olds, three years of first cycle secondary education for 14 - 16 year-olds, two years of second cycle lower secondary education for 17 - 18 year-olds and two years of advanced secondary education for 19 - 20 year-olds) to 2 – 6 – 4 - 2 (two years of preschool education for 4 - 5 year-olds, six years of primary education for 6-11 year-olds, four years of lower secondary education for 12-15 year-olds and two years of advanced secondary education for 16 – 17 year olds.
- Increasing access to education at all levels by expanding compulsory basic education to cover preschool education, primary education and complete lower secondary education.
- Allowing re-entry into formal system students who were expelled from school because of pregnancy or getting married while attending schools.
- Improving the quality of education at all levels through reforms in curricula, teacher training, and assessment and examinations.
- Having separate schools for pre-primary, primary and secondary education.
- Introducing ICT at all levels of education.
- Emphasising the teaching of science and technology.
- Decentralising the delivery of education so as to provide more autonomy to districts, school boards and boards of higher education institutions.
- Using education as a tool for combating HIV/AIDS, gender discriminations, environmental degradation, and unplanned population growth.
- Establishing an education fund aimed at having sustainable system of financing education.
- Increasing partnerships in the delivery of education between the government, communities, civil societies and development partners.

Appendix 3.1: Letter to the participants of NGT group interviews

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee,
Graduate School of Education,
University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.
9th August, 2006.

Dr/ Mr. /Ms.....

.....

Subject: Request to participate in research on effective school leadership

Reference is made to the above subject.

I am currently a doctoral student at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol in the UK. As part of graduation requirement, I am required to undertake a piece of research which ultimately will be presented in the form of a doctoral thesis. I have decided to conduct a study on effective school leadership. The aims of the study are: (1) to understand the Zanzibar key education stakeholders' perceptions of effective school leadership and of the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers should have in order to be able to demonstrate effective school leadership; and (2) to determine the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar.

As one among the key education stakeholder, I am humbly requesting you to participate in this study. Your participation and contribution in this study is very important because effective school leadership is necessary for bringing about school improvement and raising education standards. The results of this study will contribute significantly towards having a better understanding of effective school leadership in the Zanzibar context and the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers that have to be met in order to enable them to be more effective in their work.

I wish to assure you that all information that you will provide will be treated as confidential and will be used only for the purpose of research. Furthermore, while I will appreciate very much if you agree to take part in this study, participation is voluntary.

If you agree to participate in this study, I am inviting you to take part in a group interview of ....that will take place on ..... at Ministry of Education and Vocational Training Building, Mazizini. The session will start at 8.00 am. Refreshments, lunch and travelling expenses will be provided.

I thank you in advance for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee

Appendix 3.2: NGT Group interview guide

	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	PLEASE WRITE YOUR RESPONSES IN THIS COLUMN. IF YOU NEED MORE SPACE, PLEASE WRITE AT THE BACK OF THE PAGE
1	**What do you understand by the concept "effective school leadership"?** -What things do you consider to be the features/characteristics of effective school leadership? - What criteria would you use to identify a school with effective school leadership?	
2	**What do you think head-teachers should do in order to demonstrate effective school leadership?**	
3	**What do you think are the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) required by head-teachers to enable them to exercise effective school leadership?**	

Appendix 3.3: QUESTIONNAIRE ON EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND PROFESSIONAL LEARNING NEEDS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS IN ZANZIBAR

PART ONE (TO BE FILLED BY HEADTEACHERS ONLY)

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION (Please circle your response)

1.1 Please indicate your sex.

1. Male
2. Female

1.2 Which of the following age groups do you belong?

1. Less than 25
2. 25~30
3. 30~35
4. 35~40
5. 40~45
6. 46~50
7. 50~55
8. 56~60
9. More than 60.

1.3 Which is your highest academic and professional qualification?

1. University degree in/with education
2. Diploma in Education
3. Diploma in Educational Management/Administration

4. A-Levels (Form 6) with Certificate in Education
5. O-Levels (Form 4) with Certificate in Education
6. Other. Please specify .....

For how many years did you teach before becoming a head-teacher?

1. Less than 3 years
2. 4~7 years
3. 8~11 years
4. 12~15 years
5. More than 15 years

For how many years have you been a head-teacher?

1. Less than 3years
2. 4~7 years
3. 8~11 years
4. 12~15 years
5. More than 15 years.

In how many schools have you been a head-teacher?

1. One
2. Two
3. Three
4. Four
5. More than four

For how many years have you been a head-teacher of your present school?

1. Less than 3years
2. 4~7 years
3. 8~11 years
4. 12~15 years
5. More than 15 years

Is your current school in urban or rural area?

1. Urban 2. Rural

Were you a deputy head-teacher before becoming a head-teacher?

1. Yes 2. No

Did you receive any training in school leadership/management/administration before becoming a head-teacher?

1. Yes 2. No If yes, for how long? ——————

Where did you receive the training? ——————————————————

1.11 Have you received any training in school leadership/management/administration since you became a head-teacher?

1. Yes 2. No If yes, for how long? ——————

Where did you receive the training? ——————————————————

PART TWO (TO BE FILLED BY SENIOR OFFICIALS ONLY)

2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION (Please circle your response)

2.1 Please indicate your sex.

1. Male
2. Female

2.2 Which of the following age groups do you belong?

1. Less than 25
2. 25–30
3. 30–35
4. 35–40
5. 40–45
6. 46–50
7. 50–55
8. 56–60
9. More than 60.

2.3 Which is your highest academic and professional qualification?

1. University degree in/with education
2. Diploma in Education
3. Diploma in Educational Management/Administration
4. A-Levels (Form 6) with Certificate in Education

5. O-Levels (Form 4) with Certificate in Education
6. Other. Please specify .....

2.4 What is your designation?

1. Director
2. Head of Special Unit
3. Head of division
4. Regional Education Officer
5. District Education Officer
6. Teacher Centre Coordinator
7. Secondary School Inspector
8. Other. Please specify .....

2.5 Have you ever been a head-teacher?

1. Yes
2. No

2.6 If yes to 1.5, for how long?

1. Less than 3 years
2. 4 – 7 years
3. 8 – 11 years
4. 12 – 15 years
5. More than 15 years

PART 3 (TO BE FILLED BY BOTH SENIOR OFFICIALS AND HEAD-TEACHERS)

3.1 METHOD 1

3.1.1 FEATURES/CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases indicating features/characteristics that may be used to explain effective school leadership. You may write additional features/characteristics in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase in Column 1 carefully and then tick in Column 2 those which you think are important characteristics/features of effective school leadership. You may tick as many as you can. From those in Column 2 tick in Column 3 ten (10) features/characteristics that you think are most important. Then rank in Column 4 your 10 choices in order of priority of importance starting from 1 for the most important feature/characteristic to 10 for the least important feature or characteristics.

	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
Code	Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Tick from Column 1 those features/characteristics which you think are important	Tick from Column 2 ten (10) most important features/characteristics	Rank order 1 – 10 features/characteristics from Column 3 starting from 1 for the most important to 10 for the least important
E1	Visible school growth (enrolments, buildings etc)			
E2	Presence of shared vision, mission and development plans			
E3	Clean and attractive school environment			
E4	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority amongst staff and students			
E5	Good discipline of students and staff			
E6	Community involvement and participation in school activities			
E7	High expectations of staff and students			
E8	Adherence to set up laws, rules and regulations			
E9	Cooperative spirit and team work			
E10	Participation of staff and students in decision making			

E11	High commitment of staff			
E12	Few complaints from staff, students and parents			
E13	Good academic performance of students/good examination results			
E14	Harmony and unity amongst staff and students			
E15	Effective and efficient utilisation of fund			
E16	Good attendance of staff and students			
E17	Presence of extra curricular activities			
E18	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals			
E19	Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment			
E20	Transparency in conducting school businesses			
E21	Availability of important school records			
E22	Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts			
E23	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula			
E24	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance			
E25	Focus on improving learning outcomes			
E26				
E27				
E28				
E29				
E30				

3.1.2 HEADTEACHERS' ACTIONS FOR DEMONSTRATING EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases indicating actions that head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may write additional actions in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase in Column 1 carefully and then tick in Column 2 those actions that you think are important for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may tick as many as you can. From those in Column 2, tick in Column 3 ten (10) most important actions. Then rank order in Column 4 your ten choices in order of priority of importance starting from 1 for the most important to 10 for the least important action.

Code	Column 1 Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Column 2 Tick from Column 1 those actions which you think are important	Column 3 Tick from Column 2 ten (10) most important actions	Column 4 Rank order 1 – 10 the actions in Column 3 starting from 1 for the most important to 10 for the least important
A1	Understand different curriculum perspectives			
A2	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise.			
A3	Ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula.			
A4	Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils			
A5	Ensures availability of teaching/learning materials			
A6	Encourage and develop extracurricular activities			
A7	Manage teaching and learning process			
A8	Supervise closely the teaching learning process			
A9	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret and implement it at school level			
A10	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT			
A11	Involve stakeholders in decision making			
A12	Promote life long learning			

A13	Ensures clean, safe and conducive learning environment			
A14	Mobilise additional resources from various sources			
A15	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals			
A16	Articulate and communicate a shared vision			
A17	Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning			
A18	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour			
A19	Looking after and solving problems of staff and students			
A20	Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks			
A21	Ensures that all staff perform their duties effectively			
A22	Be innovative and ready to bring about changes			
A23	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities			
A24	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students			
A25	Develop a system for professional development of staff			
A26	Develop system of remedial teaching for the needy students			
A27	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders			
A28	Develop realistic plans			
A29	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement			
A30	Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT			
A31	Be ready to accept criticism			

A32	Forster unity and cohesion amongst the members of the school community			
A33	Govern according to prevailing laws and regulations			
A34	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively			
A35	Encourage transparency and accountability			
A36	Be a good role model			
A37	Have a good discipline			
A38	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority			
A39	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans			
A40	Develop a system for managing school records			
A41	Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions			
A42	Recognises sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them			
A43	Recognise and reward hard working staff and students			
A44	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds			
A45	Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders			
A46	Participate effectively in community activities			
A47	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work			
A48	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time			
A49	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods);			
A50	Understand education and other relevant laws.			

A51				
A52				
A53				
A54				
A55				

3.1.3 COMPETENCIES (KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND VALUES) FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases that indicate the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers should have in order to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may write any additional competencies in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase in Column 1 carefully and then tick in Column 2 those which you think are important for head-teachers to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may tick as many as you can. From your choices in Column 2 tick in Column 3 ten (10) competencies which you think are most important. Then rank order in Column 4 your ten choices in order of priority of importance starting from 1 for most important to 10 for the least important competence for demonstrating effective school leadership.

Similarly, in Column 5 tick those competencies which you think secondary school head-teachers need more training. You may tick as many as you can. From those in Column 5 tick in Column 6 ten (10) competencies which you think should be given priority in training and development programmes of secondary school head-teachers. Then rank order in Column 7 your ten choices in order of priority starting from 1 for the highest training priority to 10 for the lowest training priority.

	Column 1	Importance				Priority for training		
		Column 2	Column 3	Column 4		Column 5	Column 6	Column 7
Code	Competencies (knowledge/ skills/values)	Tick from Column 1 those actions which you think are important	Tick from Column 2 ten (10) most important competencies	Rank order 1 – 10 the competencies in Column 3 starting from 1 for the most important to 10 for the least important competence		Tick from Column 1 those actions which you think head-teachers need more training	Tick from Column 5 ten (10) most important priorities for training	Rank order 1 – 10 the 10 training priorities from Column 6 starting from 1 for the highest training priority to 10 for the lowest training priority
C1	Curriculum							
C2	Assessment							
C3	Interpersonal relations							
C4	Communication							
C5	Strategic planning							

C6	Time management							
C7	Financial management							
C8	Conflict management.							
C9	Motivation							
C10	Staff appraisal and development							
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)							
C12	Research and analytical skills							
C13	Guidance and counselling							
C14	Decision making							
C15	Human and social psychology							
C16	Environmental education							
C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation							
C18	Teaching/learning processes							
C19	Managing change							
C20	Law							
C21	Record management							
C22	Inclusive education							
C23	Negotiation processes							

C24	Project formulation and write up							
C25	Education policy							
C26	Self-management:							
C27	School-community relations							
C28	Leadership							
C29	Ethics							
C30	Professionalism							
C31	Delegation							
C32	Organizational structure							
C33	Order and discipline							
C34	Monitoring and evaluation							
C35	Statistics							
C36								
C37								
C38								
C39								
C40								

PART 3 (TO BE FILLED BY BOTH SENIOR OFFICIALS AND HEAD-TEACHERS

3.2 METHOD 2

3.2.1 FEATURES/CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases indicating features/characteristics that may be used to explain effective school leadership. You may write additional features/characteristics in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase carefully and then rate its degree of importance in explaining effective school leadership by circling your preferred choice which ranges from 1 for least important to 5 for most important.

Code	Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Least important ----------→ Most important				
E1	Visible school growth (enrolments, buildings etc)	1	2	3	4	5
E2	Presence of shared vision, mission and development plans	1	2	3	4	5
E3	Clean and attractive school environment	1	2	3	4	5
E4	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority amongst staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
E5	Good discipline of students and staff	1	2	3	4	5
E6	Community involvement and participation in school activities	1	2	3	4	5
E7	High expectations of staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
E8	Adherence to set up laws, rules and regulations	1	2	3	4	5
E9	Cooperative spirit and team work	1	2	3	4	5
E10	Participation of staff and students in decision making	1	2	3	4	5
E11	High commitment of staff	1	2	3	4	5
E12	Few complaints from staff, students and parents	1	2	3	4	5
E13	Good academic performance of students/good examination results	1	2	3	4	5

E14	Harmony and unity amongst staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
E15	Effective and efficient utilisation of fund	1	2	3	4	5
E16	Good attendance of staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
E17	Presence of extra curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
E18	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals	1	2	3	4	5
E19	Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment	1	2	3	4	5
E20	Transparency in conducting school businesses	1	2	3	4	5
E21	Availability of important school records	1	2	3	4	5
E22	Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts	1	2	3	4	5
E23	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	1	2	3	4	5
E24	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance	1	2	3	4	5
E25	Focus on improving learning outcomes	1	2	3	4	5
E26		1	2	3	4	5
E27		1	2	3	4	5
E28		1	2	3	4	5
E29		1	2	3	4	5
E30		1	2	3	4	5

3.2.2 HEADTEACHERS' ACTIONS FOR DEMONSTRATING EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases indicating actions that head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may write additional actions in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase carefully and then rate the importance of the action in bringing about effective school leadership by circling your preferred choice which ranges from 1 for the least important action to 5 for the most important action.

Code	Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Least important ----------→ Most important				
A1	Understand different curriculum perspectives	1	2	3	4	5
A2	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise.	1	2	3	4	5
A3	Ensure teaching/learning takes place according to prescribed curricula.	1	2	3	4	5
A4	Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils	1	2	3	4	5
A5	Ensures availability of teaching/learning materials	1	2	3	4	5
A6	Encourage and develop extracurricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
A7	Manage teaching and learning process	1	2	3	4	5
A8	Supervise closely the teaching learning process	1	2	3	4	5
A9	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret and implement it at school level	1	2	3	4	5
A10	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT .	1	2	3	4	5
A11	Involve stakeholders in decision making	1	2	3	4	5
A12	Promote life long learning	1	2	3	4	5
A13	Ensures clean, safe and conducive learning environment	1	2	3	4	5
A14	Mobilise additional resources from various sources	1	2	3	4	5

A15	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired school goals	1	2	3	4	5
A16	Articulate and communicate a shared vision	1	2	3	4	5
A17	Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning	1	2	3	4	5
A18	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	1	2	3	4	5
A19	Looking after and solving problems of staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
A20	Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks	1	2	3	4	5
A21	Ensures that all staff perform their duties effectively	1	2	3	4	5
A22	Be innovative and ready to bring about changes	1	2	3	4	5
A23	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	1	2	3	4	5
A24	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
A25	Develop a system for professional development of staff	1	2	3	4	5
A26	Develop system of remedial teaching for the needy students	1	2	3	4	5
A27	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
A28	Develop realistic plans	1	2	3	4	5
A29	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement	1	2	3	4	5
A30	Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT	1	2	3	4	5
A31	Be ready to accept criticism	1	2	3	4	5
A32	Forster unity and cohesion amongst the members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
A33	Govern according to prevailing laws and regulations	1	2	3	4	5
A34	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively	1	2	3	4	5

A35	Encourage transparency and accountability	1	2	3	4	5
A36	Be a good role model	1	2	3	4	5
A37	Have a good discipline	1	2	3	4	5
A38	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority	1	2	3	4	5
A39	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	1	2	3	4	5
A40	Develop a system for managing school records	1	2	3	4	5
A41	Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions	1	2	3	4	5
A42	Recognises sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them	1	2	3	4	5
A43	Recognise and reward hard working staff and students	1	2	3	4	5
A44	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds	1	2	3	4	5
A45	Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
A46	Participate effectively in community activities	1	2	3	4	5
A47	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	1	2	3	4	5
A48	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	1	2	3	4	5
A49	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods);	1	2	3	4	5
A50	Understand education and other relevant laws.	1	2	3	4	5
A51		1	2	3	4	5
A52		1	2	3	4	5
A53		1	2	3	4	5

A54		1	2	3	4	5
A55		1	2	3	4	5

3.2.3 COMPETENCIES (KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND VALUES) FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The table below contains phrases that indicate the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership. You may write any additional competencies in the empty rows provided. Please read each phrase carefully and then rate each phrase twice. First rate the importance of the competence (knowledge, skills and values) in bringing about effective school leadership by circling your preferred choice which ranges from 1 for the least important to 5 for the most important, and secondly for each competence indicate the degree of priority that should be given in training secondary school head-teachers starting from 1 for low priority to 5 for high priority.

Code	Competencies (knowledge/ skills/values)	Least important ------▶ Most important						Low training priority ------▶ High training priority				
C1	Curriculum	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C2	Assessment	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C3	Interpersonal relations	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C4	Communication	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C5	Strategic planning	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C6	Time management	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C7	Financial management	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C8	Conflict management.	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5

C9	Motivation	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C10	Staff appraisal and development	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C12	Research and analytical skills	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C13	Guidance and counselling	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C14	Decision making	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C15	Human and social psychology	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C16	Environmental education	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C18	Teaching/learning processes	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C19	Managing change	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C20	Law	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C21	Record management	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C22	Inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C23	Negotiation processes	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C24	Project formulation and write up	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C25	Education policy	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C26	Self-management:	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C27	School-community relations	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C28	Leadership	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5

C29	Ethics	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C30	Professionalism	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C31	Delegation	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C32	Organizational structure	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C33	Order and discipline	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C34	Monitoring and evaluation	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C35	Statistics	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C36		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C37		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C38		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C39		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
C40		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Appendix 3.4: Letter to participants of the questionnaire survey

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee,
Graduate School of Education,
University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.
11 September, 2006.

Dr/ Mr. /Ms.....

.....

Subject: Request to participate in research on effective school leadership

Reference is made to the above subject.

I am currently a doctoral student at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol—UK. As part of graduation requirement, I am required to undertake a piece of research which ultimately will be presented in the form of a doctoral thesis. I have decided to conduct a study on effective school leadership. The aims of the study are: (1) to understand the Zanzibar key education stakeholders' perceptions of effective school leadership and of the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers should have in order to be able to demonstrate effective school leadership; and (2) to determine the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar.

As one among the key education stakeholder, I am humbly requesting you to participate in this questionnaire survey. Your participation and contribution in this study is very important because effective school leadership is necessary for bringing about school improvement and raising education standards. The results of this study will be very important as it will contribute significantly towards having a better understanding of effective school leadership in the Zanzibar context and the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers that have to be met to enable them to be more effective in their work.

I wish to assure you that all information that you will provide will be treated as confidential and will be used only for the purpose of research.

I will appreciate very much if you will respond to all questions and return back the questionnaire to the Director of Secondary Education or to the Officer in Charge of Education, Pemba, before 20th September 2006.

I thank you in advance for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee

Appendix 3.5: Permission request letter

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee,
Graduate School of Education,
University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.
15 th July 2006.

The Acting Principal Secretary,
Ministry of Education and Vocational Training,
P. O. Box 394,
Zanzibar, Tanzania.

Subject: Request for permission and support to undertake research on effective school leadership and professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar

Reference is made to the above subject.

As you are aware, I am currently a doctoral student at the Graduate School of Education, University of Bristol—UK. As part of graduation requirement, I am required to undertake a piece of research which ultimately will be presented in the form of a doctoral thesis.

The purpose of letter is to request the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training to grant me permission to conduct the above mentioned research. The research involves conducting group interviews with key education stakeholders in Zanzibar including Ministry's senior officials, secondary school head-teachers, teachers, students and parents; and carrying out a questionnaire survey that will involve all senior officials and secondary school head-teachers. The aims of the study are: (1) to understand the Zanzibar key education stakeholders' perceptions of effective school leadership and of the competencies (knowledge, skills and values) that head-teachers should have in order to be able to demonstrate effective school leadership; and (2) to determine the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar. The results of this study will be very important as it will contribute significantly towards having a better understanding of effective school leadership in the Zanzibar context and the professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers that have to be met in order to enable them to be more effective in their work. The Ministry will receive a copy of my dissertation once it is completed and approved by the university.

Please find attached herewith the synopsis of my research proposal.

I thank you in advance for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Abdulhamid Y. Mzee

Appendix 3.6: Research Permission Letter

THE REVOLUTIONARY GOVERNMENT OF ZANZIBAR

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Tel: (255) (24) 2232827
Fax: (255) (24) 2232827
E-mail: edu@zanzinet.com
Reference: P33/IMF/16/21/55

P.O Box 394
Zanzibar - Tanzania
Date: 25 July 2006

Mr. Abdulhamid Y. Mzee,
196A Bloomfield Road,
Bristol, Brislington, BS4 3QU,
UK.

Ref: Request for permission and support to undertake research on effective school leadership and professional learning needs of secondary school head-teachers in Zanzibar

Reference is made to your letter dated 15 July 2006 concerning the above subject. Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct the above research as requested. Please contact the undersigned for further logistical details once you arrive in Zanzibar. The Ministry wishes you all the best in this undertaking and looks forward towards receiving a copy of your completed research dissertation.

Signed

Khadija A. Mohammed
For Principal Secretary
Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
Zanzibar.

Appendix 4.1a: Results of senior officials' group NGT interviews on features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features of effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Visible school growth and academic performance	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	54	4.50	1
Presence of shared vision and mission	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	53	4.41	2
Focus on improving learning outcomes	4	5	4	3	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	52	4.33	3
Cooperative spirit and teamwork	5	3	5	4	3	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	52	4.33	3
Conducive teaching and learning environment (clean, attractive, no corporal punishment)	4	4	5	3	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	52	4.33	3
Competent, motivated and committed staff	5	4	5	3	5	3	5	5	3	5	4	4	51	4.25	6
Participation of stakeholders in decision making	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	51	4.25	6
Presence of school improvement plans	4	5	5	3	4	4	5	3	4	5	5	4	51	4.25	6
Strong community involvement and participation	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	4	3	4	5	4	51	4.25	6
Delegation of power and responsibilities	4	4	5	3	4	5	4	4	4	5	3	5	50	4.17	10
Teaching/learning done according to prevailing curricula	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	4	5	3	4	4	50	4.17	10
Few complaints from staff, students and parents	5	3	5	3	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	50	4.17	10
Good discipline of staff and students	4	4	5	3	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	50	4.17	10
Proper management of school resources	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	3	3	4	4	5	50	4.17	10
Emphasis is on attainment of agreed goals and objectives	3	4	5	3	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	50	4.17	10
Presence of records and time-tables for various school activities	5	4	5	3	5	5	3	5	3	4	3	5	50	4.17	10
Accountability is emphasised	4	4	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	3	3	5	46	3.83	17
Effective communication	4	5	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	5	4	4	46	3.83	17
Transparency in conducting school business	4	2	5	4	4	4	4	5	3	4	4	3	46	3.83	17
No discrimination of any kind (ethnic, religion, gender, political)	3	3	5	3	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	45	3.75	20
Caring for staff and students	4	3	5	4	4	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	45	3.75	20
A system of capacity building for staff	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	3	44	3.67	22
A system of staff appraisal	4	4	4	3	5	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	44	3.67	22

Set up rules and regulations well understood and followed	4	2	5	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	43	3.58	**24**
High expectations of students and staff	4	4	5	3	3	4	3	4	2	3	3	4	42	3.50	**25**

Appendix 4.1b: Results of secondary school head-teachers' group NGT interviews on features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Good academic performance of students	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	68	4.86	1
Teachers working without close supervision	4	5	4	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	63	4.50	2
Good discipline of students and teachers	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	3	62	4.43	3
Cooperation and unity amongst staff, students, school committee, parents and the community	5	5	4	5	4	4	3	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	62	4.43	3
Effective implementation of education policy at school level	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	61	4.36	5
Effective management and use of resources to improve learning outcomes	5	4	5	2	5	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	60	4.29	6
Achievement of school goals as desired by the school, community and state	5	3	1	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	59	4.21	7
Involvement and participation of stakeholders in school improvement programmes	3	5	3	5	4	5	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	58	4.14	8
Sharing responsibilities and delegation of power and authority	4	5	3	4	4	2	4	5	4	5	5	5	3	5	58	4.14	8
Availability of important school records and time tables of various activities	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	57	4.07	10
Presence of school action plans	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	57	4.07	10
Clean and attractive school environment	4	4	3	5	4	2	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	57	4.07	10
Transparency in the use of school resources	4	5	5	5	5	2	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	3	57	4.07	10
Sustainability of school plans and activities	3	3	3	4	5	2	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	56	4.00	14
Governing according to prevailing laws, rules and regulations	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	2	5	4	5	1	5	4	56	4.00	14
Presence of harmony in school	4	3	4	4	4	2	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	54	3.86	16
Absence of truancy and late coming of students and staff	4	4	3	5	5	1	4	4	4	5	4	3	4	3	53	3.79	17
Community is proud of their school	4	2	5	5	4	1	4	4	5	5	4	3	4	2	52	3.71	18
Absence of or few complaints from staff, students, parents and other stakeholders	4	3	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	52	3.71	18
Presence of innovations	5	3	3	4	4	1	5	4	5	4	4	3	4	3	52	3.71	18

Appendix 4.1c: Results of teachers' group NGT interviews on features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Participation of staff, students and parents in decision making	4	5	3	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	65	4.64	1
Transparency in carrying out school activities	5	4	3	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	64	4.57	2
Good cooperation amongst staff, students, parents and the community	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	5	5	64	4.57	2
Good school community relations	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	63	4.50	4
Presence of order and discipline	5	3	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	63	4.50	4
High commitment of staff and students	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	62	4.43	6
Sharing of responsibilities and delegation of power and authority	3	5	5	5	2	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	62	4.43	6
Staff working in teams	5	5	4	5	5	5	1	5	4	5	4	3	5	5	61	4.36	8
Good performance of students in examinations	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	4	4	4	61	4.36	8
Effective control and utilisation of school funds	5	4	3	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	61	4.36	8
Agreed rules and regulations are followed	4	3	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	60	4.29	11
Achievement of agreed goals and objectives	4	5	4	4	4	4	2	5	5	4	4	3	5	5	58	4.14	12
Availability of important school records and information	3	4	4	5	4	4	5	3	4	5	5	5	3	4	58	4.14	12
Availability and effective implementation of school plans and activities	3	3	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	58	4.14	12
Ideas and contributions are encouraged and valued	3	3	3	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	3	5	57	4.07	15
Autonomy in making decisions	4	3	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	5	57	4.07	15
Change and innovations are encouraged	3	3	4	5	1	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	56	4.00	17
Effective system of communication	5	3	4	5	3	4	4	3	3	5	4	4	4	4	55	3.93	18
Realistic and sustainable school development plans	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	3	4	4	5	5	2	4	55	3.93	18
Clean school environment	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	53	3.79	20
Lack of conflicts amongst various groups	5	3	4	2	3	5	5	3	4	3	3	4	3	5	52	3.71	21
A system of professional/staff development in place	4	2	3	4	5	4	4	2	4	5	4	4	2	4	51	3.64	22

There is gender sensitivity	1	3	3	5	3	5	1	5	4	2	5	4	4	5	50	3.57	**23**
Availability of teaching and learning materials	2	3	3	5	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	5	48	3.43	**24**

Appendix 4.1d: Results of students' group NGT interviews on features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Participants													Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13			
Adherence to rules and regulations	5	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	59	4.54	1
Involvement of staff, students and parents in planning and implementing school goals	5	4	4	5	4	3	5	5	5	5	3	5	5	58	4.46	2
Teachers reporting in classes in time	5	4	5	5	3	3	5	3	5	5	4	4	5	56	4.31	3
Good cooperation among leaders, staff and students	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	5	4	2	4	55	4.23	4
Good implementation of planned activities	4	5	5	5	1	4	3	5	4	4	5	4	5	54	4.15	5
Good discipline of students and staff	5	4	3	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	54	4.15	5
Good attendance of staff and students	5	2	5	5	4	5	2	3	3	5	5	2	5	51	3.92	7
Committed and motivated staff and students	5	3	5	5	4	3	4	2	2	4	5	3	5	50	3.85	8
Sharing of responsibilities and delegation of power to students and staff	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	50	3.85	8
Good academic performance of students	3	1	5	5	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	2	4	49	3.77	10
Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment	5	4	3	4	4	5	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	49	3.77	10
Presence of extra curricular activities	5	5	2	4	2	5	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	49	3.77	10
Presence of special strategies for improving students' academic performance	5	2	5	5	3	5	3	3	3	5	3	3	4	49	3.77	10
Presence of vision and mission of the school	4	4	3	5	4	3	2	3	4	5	5	2	4	48	3.69	14
Advice from staff, students and parents is recognised and valued	5	3	3	5	1	5	5	4	4	2	4	3	4	48	3.69	14
Students' talents are recognised and used effectively	4	5	2	5	3	3	3	5	3	2	3	2	5	45	3.46	16
Use of democratic principles in decision making	4	2	2	3	3	5	3	2	4	4	5	5	3	45	3.46	16
Active participation of parents in motivating their children to learn	4	4	3	5	4	2	5	2	3	2	5	1	4	44	3.38	18
Sensitivity to gender issues when making decisions	5	2	1	4	2	3	4	3	5	4	2	3	5	43	3.31	19
Good maintenance and care of school environment and properties	3	4	4	5	5	2	4	2	3	2	3	1	4	42	3.23	20

Good performance in many areas– examination results, sports, discipline	4	1	5	3	1	4	5	4	2	5	3	3	2	42	3.23	**20**
Good school community relations	5	3	2	5	1	2	2	1	2	4	5	1	1	34	2.62	**22**
Less and less complaints from staff, students and parents	1	3	1	2	1	1	4	1	2	5	5	1	1	28	2.15	**23**

Appendix 4.1e: Results of parents' group NGT interviews on features/characteristics of effective school leadership

Features/characteristics of effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
School activities carried out in a transparent manner	5	4	4	3	5	5	5	3	5	5	4	5	53	4.42	1
Good academic performance of students	4	5	5	5	2	4	4	5	5	3	5	5	52	4.33	2
Collective leadership	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	51	4.25	3
Leadership which is accountable to stakeholders	3	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	5	5	51	4.25	3
Good discipline of staff and students	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	4	4	3	5	4	50	4.17	5
Staff working without close supervision	4	4	5	3	4	5	4	5	4	5	3	4	50	4.17	5
Motivated and committed staff	3	4	5	4	3	5	4	5	3	5	4	4	49	4.08	7
Full involvement and participation of staff , students and parents in decision making	3	5	5	5	5	3	4	3	3	4	5	3	48	4.00	8
Good cooperation between school, school committee and community	5	3	5	2	5	2	4	5	4	5	4	4	48	4.00	8
Realistic school development plans	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	4	3	4	5	5	48	4.00	8
Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts	4	4	4	3	3	3	5	5	4	4	5	4	48	4.00	8
Existence of harmony and unity	4	4	5	4	4	3	3	3	5	3	4	5	47	3.92	12
Delegation of power and authority to lower levels including staff and students	3	4	5	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	47	3.92	12
Adherence to rules and regulations	4	4	5	4	3	4	4	3	5	5	3	3	47	3.92	12
Effective implementation of planned activities	3	4	5	5	3	5	4	4	4	3	4	3	47	3.92	12
High expectations of staff and students	4	4	4	4	3	5	4	2	4	5	5	3	47	3.92	12
Effective and efficient utilisation of school funds	4	5	4	5	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	47	3.92	12
Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	3	4	4	3	3	5	4	4	4	3	5	4	46	3.83	18
Honesty and integrity of school leaders	5	3	5	2	2	2	4	5	4	5	4	4	45	3.75	19
Effective monitoring and evaluation of school plans	2	5	3	3	3	3	3	5	4	3	3	4	41	3.42	20
Innovations in generating more income for the school	5	5	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	40	3.33	21
Calmness and stability in schools	4	5	4	1	3	3	3	3	4	2	3	4	39	3.25	22
Good understanding of problems facing staff, students and parents	3	3	4	5	1	2	3	2	5	4	3	2	37	3.08	23
Clean and attractive school environment	3	4	4	2	1	5	4	1	4	1	5	2	36	3.00	24
Effective system of supervising teaching and learning	3	3	3	4	2	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	29	2.42	25

Appendix 4.1f: Stakeholder groups' perceptions of the most important features/characteristics of effective school leadership

NB: The numbers in brackets indicate the ranking position

S/n	Stakeholder groups				
	Senior officials	Head-teachers	Teachers	Students	Parents
1	Visible school growth and academic performance (1)	Good academic performance of students (1)	Participation of staff, students and parents in decision making (1)	Adherence to rules and regulations (1)	School activities carried out in a transparent manner. (1)
2	Presence of shared vision and mission (2)	Teachers working without close supervision (2)	Transparency in carrying out school activities (2)	Involvement of staff, students and parents in planning and implementing school goals (2)	Good academic performance of students (2)
3	Focus on improving learning outcomes (3)	Good discipline of students and teachers (3)	Good cooperation among staff, students, parents and the community (2)	Teachers reporting in classes in time (3)	Collective leadership (3)
4	Cooperative spirit and teamwork (3)	Cooperation and unity amongst staff, students, school committee and parents (3)	Good school community relations (4)	Good cooperation amongst leaders, staff and students (4)	Leadership which is accountable to stakeholders (3)
5	Conducive teaching and learning environment (clean attractive environment; no corporal punishment (3)	Effective implementation of education policy at school level (5)	Presence of order and discipline (4)	Good implementation of planned activities (5)	Good discipline of staff and students (5)
6	Competent, committed and motivated staff (6)	Effective management and use of resources to improve learning outcomes (6)	High commitment of staff and students (6)	Good discipline of students and staff (5)	Staff working without close supervision (5)
7	Participation of stakeholders in decision making (6)	Achievement of school goals as desired by the school, community and state (7)	Sharing responsibilities and delegation of power and authority (6)	Good attendance of staff and students (7)	Motivated and committed staff (7)

8	Presence of school development plans (6)	Involvement and participation of stakeholders in school improvement programmes (8)	Staff working in teams (8)	Committed and motivated staff and students (8)	Full involvement and participation of staff, students and parents in decision making (8)
9	Strong community involvement and participation (6)	Sharing responsibilities and delegation of power and authority (8)	Good performance of students in examinations (8)	Sharing responsibilities and delegating power to staff and students (8)	Good cooperation between school, school committee and community (8)
10	Delegation of power and responsibilities (10)	Availability of important school records and time-tables of various activities (10)	Effective control and utilisation of resources (8)	Good academic performance of students (10)	Realistic school development plans (8)
11	Teaching/learning done according to prescribed curricula (10)	Presence of school action plans (10)	Agreed rules and regulations are followed (11)	Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment (10)	Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts (8)
12	Few complaints from staff, students and parents (10)	Clean and attractive school environment (10)	Achievement of agreed goals and objectives (12)	Presence of extra-curricular activities (10)	Existence of harmony and unity (12)
13	Good discipline of staff and students (10)	Transparency in the use of school funds (10)	Availability of important school records and information (12)	Presence of special strategies for improving students academic performance (10)	Delegation of power and authority to lower levels including staff and students (12)
14	Proper management of school resources (10)		Availability of and effective implementation of school plans (12)		Adherence to rules and regulations (12)
15	Emphasis is on attainment of agreed goals and objectives (10)				Effective implementation of planned activities (12)
16	Presence of records and time-tables for various school activities 10				High expectations of students and staff (12)
17					Effective and efficient utilisation of school funds (12)

Appendix 4.2a: Questionnaire survey results on the senior officials' perceptions of the features/characteristics of effective school leadership (N = 56)

Code	Features/characteristics	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
E13	Good academic performance of students/good examination results	4	52 100%	0 0%	0 0%	2 3.8%	8 15.4%	42 80.8%	4.77	0.51	1
E23	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	0 0%	3 5.8%	10 19.2%	38 73.1%	4.62	0.77	2
E11	High commitment of staff	5	51 100%	0 0%	1 2.0%	3 5.9%	11 21.6%	36 70.6%	4.61	0.69	3
E18	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals	3	53 100%	0 0%	1 1.9%	4 7.5%	14 26.4%	34 64.2%	4.53	0.72	4
E9	Cooperative spirit and team work	6	50 100%	0 0%	0 0%	4 8.0%	17 34.0%	29 58.0%	4.50	0.65	5
E2	Presence of shared vision, mission and development plans	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	5 10.0%	15 30.0%	29 58.0%	4.42	0.83	6
E4	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority amongst staff and students	5	51 100%	0 9%	3 5.9%	3 5.9%	16 31.4%	29 56.9%	4.39	0.85	7
E16	Good attendance of staff and students	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	0 0%	6 11.5%	16 30.8%	29 55.8%	4.38	0.84	8
E24	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance	4	52 100%	0 0%	3 5.8%	5 9.6%	15 28.8%	29 55.8%	4.35	0.88	9
E25	Focus on improving learning outcomes	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	4 7.8%	20 39.2%	25 49.0%	4.31	0.86	10
E5	Good discipline of students and staff	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	4 7.8%	4 7.8%	13 25.5%	29 56.9%	4.27	1.04	11
E21	Availability of important school records	3	53 100%	2 3.8%	0 0%	7 13.2%	19 35.8%	25 47.2%	4.23	0.95	12
E6	Community involvement and participation in school activities	3	53 100%	1 1.9	1 1.9%	6 11.3%	22 41.5%	23 43.4%	4.23	0.87	13

E15	Effective and efficient utilisation of funds	5	51 100%	0 0%	3 5.9%	5 9.8%	24 47.1%	19 37.3%	4.16	0.83	**14**
E20	Transparency in conducting school businesses	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	7 14.0%	23 46.0%	18 36.0%	4.12	0.87	**15**
E14	Harmony and unity amongst staff and students	6	50 100%	0 0%	2 4.0%	13 26.0%	16 32.0%	19 38.0%	4.04	0.90	**16**
E10	Participation of staff and students in decision making	6	50 100%	0 0%	4 8.0%	8 16.0%	20 40.0%	18 36.0%	4.04	0.92	**17**
E22	Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	2 3.8%	15 28.8%	19 36.5%	15 28.8%	3.87	0.95	**18**
E3	Clean and attractive school environment	6	50 100%	3 6.0%	5 10.0%	12 24.0%	12 24.0%	18 36.0%	3.74	1.23	**19**
E8	Adherence to set up laws, rules and regulations	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	5 10.0%	15 30.0%	15 30.0%	13 26.0%	3.64	1.10	**20**
E7	High expectations of staff and students	5	51 100%	4 7.8%	4 7.8%	13 25.5%	17 33.3%	13 25.5%	3.61	1.18	**21**
E12	Few complaints from staff, students and parents	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	8 15.4%	16 30.8%	14 26.9%	13 25.0%	3.58	1.09	**22**
E1	Visible school growth (enrolments, buildings etc)	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	3 5.9%	18 35.3%	21 41.2%	7 13.7%	3.55	0.94	**23**
E17	Presence of extra curricular activities	4	52 100%	4 7.7%	7 13.5%	13 25.0%	20 38.5%	8 15.4%	3.40	1.14	**24**
E19	Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment	4	52 100%	4 7.7%	5 9.6%	16 30.8%	20 38.5%	7 13.5%	3.40	1.09	**25**

Appendix 4.2b: Questionnaire survey results on the secondary school head-teachers' perceptions of the features/characteristics of effective school leadership (N = 91)

Code	Features/characteristics	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
E13	Good academic performance of students/good examination results	2	89 100%	0 0%	0 0%	4 4.5%	6 6.7%	79 88.8%	4.84	0.47	1
E23	Teaching and learning done according to prescribed curricula	6	85 100%	1 1.2%	0 0%	5 5.9%	20 23.5%	59 69.4%	4.60	0.71	2
E24	Presence of special teaching/learning strategies for improving students academic performance	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	0 0%	4 4.5%	23 26.1%	60 68.2%	4.60	0. 69	3
E5	Good discipline of students and staff	6	85 100%	3 3.5%	1 1.2%	4 4.7%	19 22.4%	58 68.2%	4.51	0.92	4
E9	Cooperative spirit and team work	2	89 100%	0 0%	1 1.1%	5 5.6%	34 38.2%	49 55.1%	4.47	0.67	5
E16	Good attendance of staff and students	7	84 100%	2 2.4%	1 1.2%	6 7.1%	25 29.8%	50 59.5%	4.43	0.87	6
E18	Effective implementation of planned activities and achievement of desired goals	2	89 100%	1 1.1	4 4.5	7 7.9	26 29.2	51 57.3	4.37	0.90	7
E4	Sharing of responsibility and delegation of authority amongst staff and students	5	86 100%	0 0%	2 2.3%	11 12.8%	29 33.7%	44 51.2%	4.34	0.79	8
E11	High commitment of staff	6	85 100%	2 2.4%	2 2.4%	11 12.9%	25 29.4%	45 52.9%	4.28	0.95	9
E6	Community involvement and participation in school activities	3	88 100%	0 0%	5 5.7%	13 14.8%	27 30.7%	43 48.9%	4.23	0.91	10
E15	Effective and efficient utilisation of funds	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	5 5.7%	11 12.5%	29 33.0%	42 47.7%	4.20	0.95	11
E21	Availability of important school records	9	82 100%	1 1.2%	3 3.7%	11 13.4%	31 37.8%	36 43.9%	4.20	0.89	12
E25	Focus on improving learning outcomes	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	2 2.3%	13 14.9%	42 48.3%	29 33.3%	4.10	0.82	13
E20	Transparency in conducting school businesses	1	90 100%	0 0%	7 7.8%	15 16.7%	37 41.4%	31 34.4%	4.02	0.912	14

E14	Harmony and unity amongst staff and students	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	6 6.9%	12 13.8%	32 36.8	34 39.1	4.01	1.06	15
E10	Participation of staff and students in decision making	6	85 100%	5 5.9%	8 9.4%	16 18.8%	27 31.8%	29 34.1%	3.79	1.19	16
E2	Presence of shared vision, mission and development plans	9	82 100%	5 6.1%	5 6.1%	19 23.2%	27 32.9%	26 31.7%	3.78	1.14	17
E3	Clean and attractive school environment	7	84 100%	6 7.1%	4 4.8%	17 20.2%	33 39.3%	24 28.6%	3.77	1.13	18
E22	Absence of or very few disputes and conflicts	5	86 100%	6 7.0%	8 9.3%	15 17.4%	33 38.4%	24 27.9%	3.71	1.18	19
E8	Adherence to set up laws, rules and regulations	8	83 100%	4 4.8%	7 8.4%	23 27.7%	25 30.1%	24 28.9%	3.70	1.12	20
E7	High expectations of staff and students	5	86 100%	5 5.8%	5 5.8%	23 26.7%	32 37.2%	21 24.4%	3.69	1.09	21
E1	Visible school growth (enrolments, buildings etc)	6	85 100%	6 7.1%	7 8.2%	25 29.4%	25 29.4%	22 25.9%	3.59	1.17	22
E17	Presence of extra curricular activities	5	86 100%	6 7.0%	8 9.3%	32 37.2%	29 33.7%	11 12.8%	3.36	1.05	23
E12	Few complaints from staff, students and parents	4	87 100%	15 17.2%	15 17.2%	14 16.1%	22 25.3%	21 24.1%	3.22	1.43	24
E19	Alternative system of disciplining students instead of corporal punishment	6	85 100%	15 17.6%	18 21.2%	25 29.4%	21 24.7%	6 7.1%	2.82	1.20	25

Appendix 4.3: Results of senior officials' group NGT interviews on what secondary school head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Articulate and communicate a shared vision	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	55	4.58	1
Supervise closely the teaching learning processes	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	4	53	4.42	2
Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials	4	5	5	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	52	4.33	3
Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning	5	4	5	4	3	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	52	4.33	3
Involve all stakeholders in decision making	5	3	5	4	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	5	52	4.33	3
Manage teaching/learning processes	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	51	4.25	6
Mobilise more resources from non-traditional sources	4	5	5	3	5	4	5	4	5	3	4	4	51	4.25	6
Must be competent and devoted to his/her work	5	3	5	3	5	5	5	4	4	4	3	5	51	4.25	6
Keep pace with modern technologies particularly the use of ICT	4	5	4	3	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	51	4.25	6
Ensure effective and efficient use of time allocated for teaching and learning	5	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	3	5	51	4.25	6
Looking after and solving problems of staff and students	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	4	4	5	4	51	4.25	6
Understand education and other relevant laws	4	5	5	3	5	5	4	4	3	4	3	5	50	4.17	12
Develop school improvement plans	4	3	5	3	3	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	50	4.17	12
Maintain discipline and order	4	2	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	3	50	4.17	12
Be tolerant, understanding, honest and transparent	4	3	5	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	50	4.17	12
Understand different curriculum perspectives	5	4	5	3	5	4	4	4	5	4	3	4	50	4.17	12
Delegate power and authority	4	5	5	3	5	5	4	4	3	4	3	5	50	4.17	12
Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level	4	4	5	3	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	5	50	4.17	12
Encourage extra-curricular activities	4	3	5	3	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	49	4.08	19
Have good public relations	4	3	5	3	3	4	5	4	5	4	5	3	48	4.00	20
Have good cooperation with inspectors, advisors and other senior officials	4	3	5	4	3	5	3	5	4	2	3	4	45	3.75	21
Stick to principles, be firm and ready to take risk	3	3	5	3	2	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	45	3.75	21
Ensures conducive school environment	4	2	5	3	4	4	4	3	5	3	5	3	45	3.75	21
Identify and solve problems	5	3	5	3	2	4	4	5	3	2	4	4	44	3.67	24

Appendix 4.3b: Results of secondary school head-teachers' group NGT interviews on what they should do to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	67	4.79	1
Involve staff, students and parents in developing school improvement plans	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	66	4.71	2
Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired goals	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	66	4.71	2
Believe in the rule of law	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	65	4.64	4
Identify and solve problems facing staff and students	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	3	65	4.64	4
Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	5	5	5	5	4	3	5	5	5	4	5	3	5	5	64	4.57	6
Be exemplary in carrying out school activities	5	3	5	5	5	4	5	4	5	3	5	5	4	5	63	4.50	7
Be ready to be accountable	4	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	3	63	4.50	7
Be human, kind tolerant, good listener, courageous, self-confident, ready to accept criticism and take advice	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	63	4.50	7
Be fair in making decisions	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	62	4.43	10
Be transparent particularly in the use of school funds	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	62	4.43	10
Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	62	4.43	10
Ensure that staff are performing their duties accordingly	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	4	62	4.43	10
Ensure teaching and learning takes place according to prescribed curricula	4	4	4	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	62	4.43	10
Have a better understanding of the environment surrounding the school (traditions, culture, etc)	5	5	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	60	4.35	15
Develop an effective organisational structure	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	59	4.21	16
Be good educator and advisor both in school and in the community	5	5	3	5	4	3	5	4	4	3	5	3	5	4	58	4.14	17
Be innovative in mobilising teaching/learning resources	5	5	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	57	4.07	18
Develop staff development programmes	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	4	56	4.00	19
Develop goals which are realistic	4	3	4	4	5	3	4	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	55	3.93	20
Be patriotic and keep national interest before self interests	4	3	5	5	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	3	54	3.86	21

Keep doors open for staff, students and parents to give their views and ideas	4	4	2	4	5	5	4	4	3	3	4	2	5	3	52	3.71	**22**
Believe everyone in the school community can contribute positively towards school development	4	5	3	5	4	1	4	4	5	4	4	2	4	1	50	3.57	**23**

Appendix 4.3c: Results of teachers' group NGT interviews on what secondary school head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Have good cooperation with staff, students and parents	3	5	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	65	4.64	1
Involve the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	64	4.57	2
Be courageous in accepting criticism and ready to take risk	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	64	4.57	2
Be tolerant, trustful, transparent and ready to be accountable	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	64	4.57	2
Control and use school resources effectively and efficiently	4	5	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	64	4.57	2
Share responsibility and delegate power and authority to staff and students	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	64	4.57	2
Ensure justice is done by being confident, fair and firm in making decisions	3	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	63	4.50	7
Be exemplary by participating actively in school development activities	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	63	4.50	7
Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders	4	4	4	5	3	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	63	4.50	7
Develop a system of managing school records	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	62	4.43	10
Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds	4	4	3	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	62	4.43	10
Use as much as possible democratic principles in reaching key decisions	4	4	4	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	62	4.43	10
Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment	5	3	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	62	4.43	10
Have high expectations of staff and students	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	62	4.43	10
Develop realistic and sustainable school improvement plans	5	3	3	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	60	4.29	15
Develop and institutionalise a system of staff development	4	5	3	4	3	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	60	4.29	15
Recognise and reward hardworking staff and students	4	3	4	5	3	5	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	60	4.29	15
Recognise sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to act accordingly	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	60	4.29	15
Report regularly to stakeholders on school revenues and expenditures	3	4	3	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	60	4.29	15
Monitor and evaluate implementation of school activities	3	4	3	4	4	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	60	4.29	15
Seek and encourage ideas from others aimed at bringing about school improvement	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	60	4.29	15

Show commitment to his/her job	4	4	5	5	3	4	3	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	59	4.21	22
Be of good personality and show respect to others	4	4	4	5	3	5	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	59	4.21	22
Develop strategies that will ensure good academic performance of students	4	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	5	4	2	5	5	4	59	4.21	22
Develop a system for evaluating staff performance	3	5	3	5	4	3	1	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	57	4.07	25
Ensure enforcement of laws and regulations	4	5	3	3	3	5	2	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	55	3.93	26
Be able to control emotions and be calm when under pressure	4	3	4	4	3	5	1	5	4	5	5	3	4	4	54	3.86	27
Be competent and knowledgeable	4	2	3	4	5	3	5	4	4	3	4	3	5	4	53	3.79	28
Develop strategies for raising awareness of students and staff on different problems facing the community	4	3	2	5	5	4	1	3	4	5	5	4	4	3	52	3.71	29
Introduce extracurricular activities	2	3	2	4	4	4	1	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	49	3.50	30

Appendix 4.3d: Results of students' group NGT interviews on what secondary school head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Participants													Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13			
Share responsibility and delegate power and authority	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	60	4.61	1
Be able to use modern technologies including ICT	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	59	4.54	2
Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	5	3	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	58	4.46	3
Fosters unity and cohesion amongst members of the school community	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	3	5	3	5	5	4	58	4.46	3
Govern according to established rules and regulations	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	57	4.38	5
Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils	5	5	5	5	5	3	5	3	3	4	4	5	5	57	4.38	5
Encourage and develop extra curricular activities	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	3	3	5	5	4	5	57	4.38	5
Have good discipline	5	3	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	5	4	5	57	4.38	5
Recognise and provide solutions to staff and students problems	5	5	4	4	3	5	4	5	4	5	3	4	5	56	4.31	9
Foster cooperation between staff, students and parents	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	3	5	4	4	56	4.31	9
Monitor closely the performance of staff	5	4	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	56	4.31	9
Must be a good role model	5	3	3	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	56	4.31	9
Develop realistic plans	5	4	5	5	3	5	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	56	4.31	9
Must be patient, fair, considerate, transparent and ready to accept criticism	5	5	3	5	5	4	5	3	4	3	4	5	5	56	4.31	9
Recognise talents of staff and students and use them effectively	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	4	5	5	5	56	4.31	9
Promote life long learning	4	5	3	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	56	4.31	9
Ensure availability of teaching and learning materials	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	56	4.31	9
Show commitment to his/her job	5	4	5	5	5	5	3	3	3	3	4	3	5	53	4.08	18
Be innovative	5	3	3	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	3	4	53	4.08	18
Provide guidelines to staff and students on how to implement various school activities	4	3	5	5	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	5	5	52	4.00	20
Make study visits in order to learn from others	4	5	5	5	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	3	2	49	3.77	21

Appendix 4.3e: Results of parents' group NGT interviews on what secondary school head-teachers should do to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Supervise closely the implementation of school plans and activities	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	55	4.58	1
Have high expectations of staff and students	3	5	5	5	3	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	53	4.42	2
Ensure staff are performing their duties accordingly	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	3	53	4.42	2
Participate in community activities	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	3	5	5	52	4.33	4
Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement	3	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	52	4.33	4
Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	4	5	5	5	3	3	4	3	5	5	5	5	52	4.33	4
Be very trustful and firm in decision making	4	5	5	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	5	3	51	4.25	7
Develop a system for professional development of staff and him/herself	5	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	4	4	5	2	51	4.25	7
Believe in democratic principles	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	4	5	51	4.25	7
Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner centred methods)	4	5	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	51	4.25	7
Be analytical, innovative and ready to bring about changes	3	5	5	5	3	3	5	3	5	5	4	5	51	4.25	7
Ensure good cooperation with staff and students	5	5	5	5	4	3	4	3	4	5	3	4	50	4.17	12
Make decisions without fear, favouritism and be ready to take risks	5	4	4	3	3	3	5	4	5	4	4	5	49	4.08	13
Involve staff, students and parents in decision making	3	4	5	3	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	49	4.08	13
Develop a system of remedial teaching to meet needs of various students	4	5	4	5	4	3	3	4	3	4	5	5	49	4.08	13
Make use of the talents of staff and students	5	5	5	5	4	2	3	4	4	5	4	3	49	4.08	13
Work according to given directives, laws, rules and regulations	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	49	4.08	13
Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders	4	5	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	49	4.08	13
Encourage views and ideas from staff, students and parents	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	49	4.08	13
Be ready to protect staff and students when acting in good faith	5	5	5	4	3	4	3	2	4	4	5	4	48	4.00	20

Be able to balance between leadership and management	4	4	5	3	2	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	47	3.92	21
Perform his/her duties diligently without fear or favouritism	5	5	5	5	2	2	4	3	4	5	3	4	47	3.92	21
Identify and solve problems as quickly as possible	5	5	5	5	2	2	4	3	3	5	5	2	46	3.83	23
Develop plans that are realistic	5	5	4	4	3	2	4	3	3	5	5	3	46	3.83	23
Inspire and motivate teachers	2	5	4	3	3	5	4	5	4	4	2	4	45	3.75	25
Have a system for evaluating job performance of staff	3	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	5	4	2	45	3.75	25
Give relevant information in time to all stakeholders (staff, students, parents and authorities)	4	5	4	4	2	2	3	5	3	4	5	4	45	3.75	25
Have good knowledge of the teaching profession	4	4	5	4	2	4	4	1	4	5	5	3	45	3.75	25
Perform his/her duties effectively and efficiently	2	5	5	4	3	2	3	1	3	5	5	3	41	3.42	29
Develop a system for teacher inspection and appraisal	2	4	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	4	5	2	40	3.33	30

Appendix 4.3f: Stakeholder groups' perceptions of the most important secondary school head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership
NB: The numbers in brackets indicate the ranking position

S/n	Stakeholder groups				
	Senior officials	Head-teachers	Teachers	Students	Parents
1	Articulate and communicate a shared vision (1)	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities (1)	Have good cooperation with staff, students and parents (1)	Share responsibility and delegate power and authority (1)	Supervise closely the implementation of school plans and activities (1)
2	Supervise closely the teaching learning processes (2)	Involve staff and students in developing school improvement programmes (2)	Involve the school community in developing and implementing school plans (2)	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT (2)	Have high expectations of staff and students (2)
3	Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials (3)	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired goals (2)	Be courageous in accepting criticism and ready to take risk (2)	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour (3)	Ensure staff are performing their duties accordingly (2)
4	Develop effective organisational structure to facilitate teaching and learning (3)	Believe in the rule of law (4)	Be tolerant, trustful, transparent and ready to be accountable (2)	Foster unity and cohesion amongst members of the school community (3)	Participate in community activities (4)
5	Involve all stakeholders in decision making (3)	Identify and solve problems facing staff and students (4)	Control and use resources effectively and efficiently (2)	Govern according to established rules and regulations (5)	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement (4)
6	Manage the teaching/learning process (6)	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students (6)	Share responsibility and delegate power and authority to staff and students (2)	Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils (5)	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time (4)

7	Mobilise more resources from non-traditional sources (6)	Be exemplary in carrying out school activities (7)	Ensure justice is done by being confident, fair and firm in making decisions (7)	Encourage and develop extra curricular activities (5)	Be very trustful and firm in decision making (7)
8	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work (6)	Be ready to be accountable (7)	Be exemplary by participating actively in school improvement activities (7)	Have good discipline (5)	Develop a system of professional development of staff and him/herself (7)
9	Keep pace with the use of modern technologies including ICT (6)	Be human, kind, tolerant, good listener, courageous, self confident, ready to accept criticism and take advice (7)	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders (7)	Recognise and solve problems faced by staff and students (9)	Understand various teaching/ learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner centred methods) (7)
10	Ensure effective and efficient use of time allocated for teaching and learning (6)	Be fair in making decisions (10)	Develop a system of managing school records (10)	Foster cooperation between staff, students and parents (9)	Believe in democratic principles (7)
11	Looking after and solving problems of staff and students (6)	Be transparent particularly in the use of school resources (10)	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds (10)	Monitor closely the performance of staff (9)	Be analytical, innovative and ready to bring about changes (7)
12	Understand education and other relevant laws (12)	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise (10)	Use as much as possible democratic principles in reaching key decisions (10)	Must be a good role model (9)	Ensure good cooperation between staff and students (12)
13	Develop school improvement plans (12)	Ensure that staff are performing their duties accordingly (10)	Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment (10)	Develop realistic plans (9)	Make decisions without fear, favouritism, and be ready to take risks (13)
14	Maintain discipline and order (12)	Ensure teaching and learning takes place according to prescribed curricula. (10)	Have high expectations of staff and students (10)	Must be patient, fair, considerate, transparent and ready to accept criticism (9)	Involve staff, students and parents in decision making (13)
15	Be tolerant, understanding, honest and transparent (12)		Develop realistic and sustainable school improvement plans (15)	Recognise talents of staff and students and use them effectively (9)	Develop a system of remedial teaching for needy students (13)

16	Understand different curriculum perspectives (12)		Develop and institutionalise a system of staff development (15)	Promote life long learning (9)	Make use of the talents of staff and students (13)
17	Delegate power and authority (12)		Recognise and reward hardworking staff and students (15)	Ensure availability of teaching and learning materials (9)	Work according to established rules and regulations (13)
18	Understand education policy and be able to interpret it at school level (12)		Recognise sources of conflicts and disputes and be able to act accordingly (15)		Provide financial reports (revenues and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders (13)
19			Report regularly to stakeholders on school revenues and expenditures (15)		Encourage views and ideas from staff, students and parents (13)
20			Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans (15)		
			Seek and encourage ideas from others aimed at bringing about school improvement (15)		

Appendix 4.4a: Questionnaire survey results on the senior officials' perceptions of the secondary school head-teachers' actions for demonstrating effective school leadership (N = 56)

Code	Head-teachers' actions	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
A03	Ensure teaching takes place according to prescribed curricula	3	53 100%	0 0%	0 0%	3 5.7%	7 13.2%	43 81.1%	4.75	0.55	1
A21	Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	3 6.0%	6 12.0%	40 80.0%	4.68	0.77	2
A07	Manage the teaching and learning processes	6	50 100%	0 0%	0 0%	4 8.0%	11 22.0%	35 70.0%	4.62	0.63	3
A15	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired goals	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	1 1.9%	4 7.7%	6 11.5%	40 76.9%	4.60	0.87	4
A09	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	3 5.9%	12 23.5%	35 68.6%	4.57	0.78	5
A08	Supervise closely the teaching learning processes	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	0 0%	4 7.7%	11 21.2%	36 69.2%	4.56	0.80	6
A05	Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials	4	52 100%	0 0%	2 3.8%	4 7.7%	10 19.2%	36 69.2%	4.54	0.80	7
A13	Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment	5	51 100%	0 0%	0 0%	8 15.7%	11 21.6%	32 62.7%	4.47	0.75	8
A35	Encourage transparency and accountability	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	4 7.8%	16 31.4%	30 58.8%	4.45	0.81	9
A23	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	2 3.9%	14 27.5%	32 62.7%	4.43	0.96	10
A20	Make decisions without fear, favouritism and be ready to take risks	4	52 100%	2 3.8%	3 5.8%	3 5.8%	8 15.4%	36 69.2%	4.40	1.10	11
A49	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods etc.)	6	50 100%	0 0%	2 4.0%	5 10.0%	14 28.0%	29 58.0%	4.40	0.83	12
A37	Have a good discipline	5	51 100%	0 0%	3 5.9%	3 5.9%	16 31.4%	29 56.9%	4.39	0.85	13
A47	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	6	50 100%	0 0%	1 2.0%	6 12.0%	16 32.0%	27 54.0%	4.38	0.78	14

A39	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	2 3.9%	3 5.9%	12 23.5%	32 62.7%	4.37	1.04	15
A36	Be a good role model	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	0 0%	8 15.4%	13 25.0%	30 57.7%	4.37	0.89	16
A44	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	7 14.0%	11 22.0%	30 60.0%	4.36	0.94	17
A22	Be innovative and ready to bring about changes	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	2 4.0%	3 6.0%	17 34.0%	27 54.0%	4.34	0.91	18
A02	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	1 1.9%	4 7.7%	20 38.5%	26 50.0%	4.33	0.86	19
A38	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	5 10.0%	18 36.0%	25 50.0%	4.30	0.89	20
A17	Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching and learning	5	51 100%	0 0%	1 2.0%	8 15.7%	18 35.3%	24 47.1%	4.27	0.80	21
A34	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	8 15.7%	15 29.4%	26 51.0%	4.25	0.93	22
A16	Articulate and communicate a shared vision	7	49 100%	1 2.0%	2 4.1%	4 8.2%	19 38.8%	23 46.9%	4.24	0.92	23
A28	Develop system of remedial teaching for the needy students	5	51 100%	0 0%	3 5.9%	8 15.7%	15 29.4%	25 49.0%	4.22	0.92	24
A43	Recognise and award hard working staff and students	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	7 13.7%	20 39.2%	22 43.1%	4.20	0.89	25
A41	Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	7 13.7%	21 41.2%	21 41.2%	4.18	0.89	26
A18	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	7 13.7%	18 35.3%	23 45.1%	4.16	1.01	27
A50	Understand education and other relevant laws	6	50 100%	0 0%	5 10.0%	4 8.0%	19 38.0%	22 44.0%	4.16	0.95	28
A33	Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	8 15.7%	20 39.2%	21 41.2%	4.16	0.90	29
A48	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	1 2.0%	4 8.0%	23 46.0%	20 40.0%	4.16	0.95	30
A40	Develop a system for managing school records	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	9 17.6%	22 43.1%	19 37.3%	4.14	0.85	31
A01	Understand different curriculum perspectives	5	51 100%	3 5.9%	1 2.0%	7 13.7%	17 33.3%	23 45.1%	4.10	1.10	32

A32	Foster unity and cohesion amongst members of the school community	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	3 5.9%	7 13.7%	19 37.3%	21 41.2%	4.10	0.98	**33**
A24	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	1 2.0%	6 12.0%	22 44.0%	19 38.0%	4.10	0.97	**34**
A19	Look after and solve problems of staff and students	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	1 2.0%	11 21.6%	18 35.3%	20 39.2%	4.08	0.93	**35**
A04	Determine the curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of pupils	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	3 5.9%	10 19.6%	13 25.5%	23 45.1%	4.02	1.12	**36**
A31	Be ready to accept criticism	4	52 100%	2 3.8%	3 5.8%	8 15.4%	18 34.6%	21 40.4%	4.02	1.07	**37**
A27	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	2 3.9%	10 19.6%	20 39.2%	18 35.3%	4.02	0.95	**38**
A25	Develop a system for professional development of staff	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	13 26.0%	20 40.0%	16 32.0%	4.00	0.88	**39**
A45	Provide financial reports (revenue and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	4 8.0%	10 20.0%	15 30.0%	20 40.0%	3.98	1.06	**40**
A12	Promote life long learning	6	50 100%	3 6.0%	2 4.0%	9 18.0%	16 32.0%	20 40.0%	3.96	1.14	**41**
A14	Mobilise additional resources from various sources	4	52 100%	3 5.8%	1 1.9%	10 19.2%	20 38.5%	18 34.6%	3.94	1.07	**42**
A26	Develop systems of remedial teaching for the needy students	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	2 3.9%	11 21.6%	22 43.1%	15 29.4%	3.94	0.92	**43**
A42	Recognise sources and conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	3 5.9%	14 27.5%	10 19.6%	22 43.1%	3.92	1.15	**44**
A10	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT	4	52 100%	3 5.8%	3 5.8%	8 15.4%	21 40.4%	17 32.7%	3.88	1.11	**45**
A11	Involve stakeholders in decision making	4	52 100%	1 1.9%	4 7.7%	12 23.1%	18 34.6%	17 32.7%	3.88	1.02	**46**
A29	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement	4	52 100%	2 3.8%	3 5.8%	13 25.0%	16 30.8%	18 34.6%	3.87	1.08	**47**
A30	Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT	5	51 100%	3 5.9%	2 3.9%	12 23.5%	18 35.3%	16 31.4%	3.82	1.11	**48**
A46	Participate effectively in community activities	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	6 12.0%	8 16.0%	22 44.0%	12 24.0%	3.72	1.10	**49**
A06	Encourage and develop extracurricular activities	4	52 100%	5 9.6%	5 9.6%	12 23.1%	22 42.3%	8 15.4%	3.44	1.16	**50**

Appendix 4.4b: Questionnaire survey results on the secondary school head-teachers' perceptions of their actions for demonstrating effective school leadership (N = 91)

Code	Head-teachers' actions	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
A21	Ensure that all staff perform their duties effectively	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	2 2.3%	4 4.5%	13 14.8%	68 77.3%	4.65	0.77	1
A15	Work closely with staff, students, parents, the community, local and central authorities to achieve desired goals	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	0 0%	6 6.8%	15 17.0%	66 75.0%	4.65	0.71	2
A37	Have a good discipline	5	86 100%	2 2.3%	0 0%	7 8.1%	17 19.8%	60 69.8%	4.55	0.83	3
A38	Share responsibilities and delegate power and authority	4	87 100%	0 0%	1 1.1%	8 9.2%	22 25.3%	56 64.4%	4.53	0.71	4
A03	Ensure teaching takes place according to prescribed curricula	2	89 100%	1 1.1%	3 3.4%	7 7.9%	17 19.1%	61 68.5%	4.51	0.87	5
A05	Ensure availability of teaching/learning materials	1	90 100%	0 0%	1 1.1%	8 8.9%	26 28.9%	55 61.1%	4.50	0.71	6
A23	Monitor and evaluate implementation of school plans and activities	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	2 2.3%	7 8.0%	21 23.9%	57 64.8%	4.49	0.83	7
A08	Supervise closely the teaching learning processes	3	88 100%	0 0%	4 4.5%	8 9.1%	19 21.6%	57 64.8%	4.47	0.84	8
A39	Involve staff, students, parents and the community in developing and implementing school improvement plans	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	5 5.7%	7 8.0%	15 17.0%	60 68.2%	4.45	0.95	9
A44	Ensure effective and efficient use of school funds	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	5 5.7%	3 3.4%	19 21.8%	57 65.5%	4.40	1.04	10
A49	Understand various teaching/learning strategies and methods (team teaching; teaching in large classes; learner-centred methods etc.)	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	2 2.3%	12 13.6%	21 23.9%	52 59.1%	4.38	0.89	11
A20	Make decisions without fear, favouritism and be ready to take risks	5	86 100%	1 1.2%	2 2.3%	8 9.3%	27 31.4%	48 55.8%	4.38	0.84	12
A09	Understand the education policy and be able to interpret it at school level	5	86 100%	2 2.3%	4 4.7%	5 5.8%	24 27.9%	51 59.3%	4.37	0.96	13
A36	Be a good role model	5	86 100%	3 3.5%	3 3.5%	7 8.1%	23 26.7%	50 58.1%	4.33	1.01	14

A13	Ensure clean, safe and conducive learning environment	3	88 100%	2 2.3%	2 2.3%	13 14.8%	21 23.9%	50 56.8%	4.31	0.96	**15**
A04	Determine curriculum which is relevant to the academic abilities and needs of all pupils	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	7 8.0%	7 8.0%	24 27.3%	49 55.7%	4.28	0.99	**16**
A35	Encourage transparency and accountability	3	88 100%	2 2.3%	2 2.3%	14 15.9%	21 23.9%	49 55.7%	4.28	0.97	**17**
A18	Show tolerance, respect, understanding, kindness and good sense of humour	5	86 100%	1 1.2%	5 5.8%	8 9.3%	27 31.4%	45 52.3%	4.28	0.94	**18**
A31	Be ready to accept criticism	5	86 100%	2 2.3%	4 4.7%	12 14.0%	21 24.4%	47 54.7%	4.24	1.01	**19**
A19	Look after and solve problems of staff and students	3	88 100%	4 4.5%	2 2.3%	12 13.6%	23 26.1%	47 53.4%	4.22	1.07	**20**
A43	Recognise and award hard working staff and students	2	89 100%	2 2.2	3 3.4	12 13.5	32 36.0	40 44.9	4.18	0.95	**21**
A34	Recognise available talents of staff and students and use them effectively	3	88 100%	2 2.3%	4 4.5%	8 9.1%	36 40.9%	38 43.2%	4.18	0.94	**22**
A30	Keep pace with the use of modern technology particularly the use of ICT	3	88 100%	3 3.4%	3 3.4%	15 17.0%	22 25.0%	45 51.1%	4.17	1.05	**23**
A33	Govern according to prevailing rules and regulations	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	4 4.6%	18 20.7%	20 23.0%	44 50.6%	4.17	0.99	**24**
A07	Manage the teaching and learning processes	2	89 100%	2 2.2%	5 5.6%	12 13.5%	28 31.5%	42 47.2%	4.16	1.01	**25**
A22	Be innovative and ready to bring about changes	8	83 100%	2 2.4%	5 6.0%	8 9.6%	31 37.3%	37 44.6%	4.16	0.99	**26**
A01	Understand different curriculum perspectives	3	88 100%	4 4.5	4 4.5	9 10.2	30 34.1	41 46.6	4.14	1.07	**27**
A47	Must be committed and dedicated to his/her work	6	85 100%	6 7.1%	4 4.7%	8 9.4%	22 25.9%	45 52.9%	4.13	1.20	**28**
A28	Develop system of remedial teaching for the needy students	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	4 4.5%	19 21.6%	23 26.1%	41 46.65	4.13	0.98	**29**
A50	Understand education and other relevant laws	4	87 100%	2 2.3%	3 3.4%	17 19.5%	25 28.7%	40 46.0%	4.13	1.00	**30**
A45	Provide financial reports (revenue and expenditures) regularly to stakeholders	3	88 100%	6 6.8%	2 2.3%	11 12.5%	28 31.8%	41 46.65	4.09	1.14	**31**
A42	Recognise sources and conflicts and disputes and be able to resolve them	4	87 100%	5 5.7%	2 2.3%	14 16.1%	27 31.0%	39 44.8&	4.07	1.11	**32**

A48	Develop strategies for effective and efficient use of time	4	87 100%	4 4.6%	5 5.7%	11 12.6%	29 33.3%	38 43.7%	4.06	1.10	**33**
A02	Allocate curricular responsibilities to staff according to their expertise	5	86 100%	5 5.8	4 4.7	12 14.0	28 32.6	37 43.0	4.02	1.14	**34**
A46	Participate effectively in community activities	3	88 100%	3 3.4%	6 6.8%	14 15.9%	28 31.8%	37 42.0%	4.02	1.08	**35**
A40	Develop a system for managing school records	3	88 100%	3 3.4%	5 5.7%	16 18.2%	29 33.0%	35 39.8%	4.00	1.06	**36**
A27	Communicate effectively both orally and in writing relevant information in time to all stakeholders	2	89 100%	2 2.2%	6 6.7%	15 16.9%	33 37.1%	33 37.15	4.00	1.01	**37**
A24	Inspire confidence and boost morale of staff and students	1	90 100%	2 2.2%	4 4.4%	15 16.7%	40 44.4%	29 32.2.1%	4.00	0.94	**38**
A17	Develop effective organisational structures to facilitate teaching/ learning	4	87 100%	2 2.3%	4 4.6%	20 23.0%	29 33.3%	32 36.8%	3.98	1.00	**39**
A29	Foster cooperation with other institutions to bring about school improvement	4	87 100%	2 2.3%	7 8.0%	13 14.9%	34 39.1%	31 35.6%	3.98	1.02	**40**
A10	Be able to use modern technologies including ICT	2	89 100%	7 7.9%	5 5.6%	18 20.2%	13 14.6%	46 51.7%	3.97	1.29	**41**
A25	Develop a system for professional development of staff	4	87 100%	2 2.3%	2 2.3%	23 26.4%	33 37.9%	27 31.0%	3.93	0.94	**42**
A41	Use as much as possible democratic principles in making key decisions	3	88 100%	4 4.5	7 8.0	16 18.2	26 29.5	35 39.8	3.92	1.15	**43**
A11	Involve stakeholders in decision making	3	88 100%	7 8.0%	5 5.7%	15 17.0%	30 34.1%	31 35.2%	3.83	1.21	**44**
A32	Foster unity and cohesion amongst members of the school community	3	88 100%	5 5.7%	5 5.7%	19 21.6%	35 39.8%	24 27.3%	3.77	1.09	**45**
A14	Mobilise additional resources from various sources	3	88 100%	5 5.7%	3 3.4%	20 22.7%	40 45.5%	20 22.7%	3.76	1.03	**46**
A26	Develop systems of remedial teaching for the needy students	6	85 100%	3 3.5%	11 12.9%	22 25.9%	29 34.1%	20 23.5%	3.61	1.09	**47**
A16	Articulate and communicate a shared vision	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	9 10.3%	26 29.9%	32 36.8%	17 19.5%	3.59	1.03	**48**
A12	Promote life long learning	3	88 100%	5 5.7%	8 9.1%	25 28.4%	31 35.2%	19 21.6%	3.58	1.10	**49**
A06	Encourage and develop extracurricular activities	5	86 100%	8 9.3%	13 15.1%	22 25.6%	26 30.2%	17 19.8%	3.36	1.23	**50**

Appendix 4.5a: Results of senior officials' group NGT interviews on competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Leadership	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	56	4.67	1
Monitoring and evaluation of student progress	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	55	4.58	2
Organisational structure	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	54	4.50	3
Strategic planning	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	3	4	5	4	5	53	4.42	4
Motivation skills	5	5	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	5	52	4.33	5
Research and analytical skills	5	5	5	3	4	4	5	4	3	5	4	4	51	4.25	6
Professionalism	5	1	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	51	4.25	6
Curriculum	4	5	3	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	5	3	50	4.17	8
Financial management	5	3	5	3	4	4	5	5	3	3	4	4	48	4.00	9
Interpersonal skills	4	5	4	4	3	5	4	4	3	4	4	4	48	4.00	9
Conflict resolution and negotiation skills	4	3	5	3	4	5	4	4	2	4	4	5	47	3.92	11
Human and social psychology	4	5	5	3	2	4	4	5	5	3	3	4	47	3.92	11
Managing change	4	3	4	3	5	4	3	4	5	4	3	5	47	3.92	11
Time management	4	3	5	3	4	5	4	3	4	5	3	4	47	3.92	11
ICT and communication skills	4	4	5	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	47	3.92	11
Environmental issues	3	5	5	3	4	4	4	3	4	2	5	4	46	3.83	16
Staff appraisal and development	4	4	5	3	4	5	4	4	4	3	3	3	46	3.83	16
Guidance and counselling	4	2	5	3	3	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	45	3.75	18
Resource mobilisation skills	3	3	5	3	3	5	4	4	3	3	4	5	45	3.75	18
Maintenance culture	4	2	5	3	1	2	4	3	3	4	5	4	40	3.33	20
Gender skills	3	2	4	3	1	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	38	3.17	21
Health including HIV/AIDS skills	3	2	5	3	1	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	38	3.17	21
International relations	4	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	1	2	4	3	36	3.00	23

Appendix 4.5b: Results of secondary school head-teachers' group NGT interviews on competencies that they need to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Leadership	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	5	4	4	5	5	66	4.71	1
Planning skills	5	4	4	5	5	3	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	65	4.64	2
Teaching and learning processes	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	65	4.64	2
ICT skills	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	3	63	4.50	4
Financial management skills	5	5	3	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	63	4.50	4
Assessment and evaluation	5	3	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	62	4.43	6
Guidance and counselling skills	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	4	4	61	4.36	7
Motivation skills	5	5	5	5	4	3	4	5	4	4	3	4	5	4	60	4.29	8
Law (Legal knowledge)	5	5	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	5	4	3	4	5	59	4.21	9
Statistical skills	5	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	59	4.21	9
Project write-up skills	5	4	3	5	4	2	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	59	4.21	9
Decision making skills	5	3	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	3	4	59	4.21	9
Staff development	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	59	4.21	9
Communication skills	5	5	4	4	5	3	5	5	4	3	3	5	4	4	59	4.21	9
Decision making skills	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	58	4.14	15
Human psychology	5	4	5	5	3	3	4	4	4	5	4	3	5	4	58	4.14	15
Problem solving skills	5	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	2	57	4.07	17
Research skills	4	3	3	5	3	3	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	57	4.07	17
School community relations	5	5	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	2	57	4.07	17
Inclusive education	4	4	3	5	3	5	4	4	5	3	5	4	4	4	57	4.07	17
Negotiating skills	5	4	4	5	3	4	4	5	4	3	3	3	4	4	55	3.93	21
Efficient use of limited resources	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	5	3	4	5	54	3.86	22
Handling large classes	4	5	2	4	4	2	4	4	5	4	3	4	4	3	52	3.71	23

Appendix 4.5c: Results of teachers' group NGT interviews on competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' Competencies for effective school leadership	Participants														Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
Leadership	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	68	4.86	1
Decision making skills	5	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	66	4.71	2
Effective communication skills	5	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	64	4.57	3
Human and social psychology	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	63	4.50	4
Teaching/learning processes	4	4	5	5	3	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	62	4.43	5
ICT skills	5	4	3	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	62	4.43	5
Interpersonal relationships	3	5	4	5	5	3	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	62	4.43	5
Income generation and resource mobilisation skills	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	61	4.36	8
Financial management	3	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	61	4.36	8
Morals and ethics of leadership	2	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	61	4.36	8
Monitoring and evaluation	4	3	5	4	4	5	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	60	4.29	11
Guidance and counselling skills	4	3	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4	60	4.29	11
Teaching learning strategies (team teaching, teaching large classes, etc)	3	4	4	5	4	3	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	60	4.29	11
Strategic planning	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	60	4.29	11
Statistical skills	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	5	4	60	4.29	11
Time management skills	5	4	4	5	3	4	3	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	59	4.21	16
Vision	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	59	4.21	16
Managing change	3	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	3	5	4	5	4	58	4.14	18
Legal knowledge	3	4	4	3	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	3	58	4.14	18
Conflict management	3	4	5	5	4	5	3	4	5	4	4	3	5	3	57	4.07	20
Team management skills	3	5	5	5	4	5	1	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	57	4.07	20
Sociology	2	2	4	5	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	56	4.00	22
Basic knowledge of globalisation	5	3	3	5	4	4	1	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	51	3.64	23
Environmental education	4	3	3	2	4	4	1	3	4	4	4	3	4	5	48	3.43	24

Appendix 4.5d: Results of students' group NGT interviews on competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' competencies for effective school leadership	Participants													Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13			
Research skills	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	3	3	5	4	58	4.46	1
Leadership skills	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	2	5	4	5	5	5	59	4.31	2
Teaching and learning strategies	5	4	4	5	5	3	5	5	4	5	4	3	4	56	4.31	2
Interpersonal skills	5	4	5	3	5	3	5	4	5	3	4	5	5	56	4.31	2
ICT skills	4	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	3	5	5	5	5	56	4.31	2
Environmental education	5	4	3	5	5	5	5	5	3	4	4	5	2	55	4.23	6
Human psychology	5	5	2	5	4	5	4	2	5	3	5	4	5	54	4.15	7
Monitoring and evaluation	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	4	3	5	3	5	3	54	4.15	7
Guidance and counselling	5	5	4	4	4	3	4	5	3	5	3	5	4	54	4.15	7
Financial management	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	54	4.15	7
Inclusive education	4	3	5	4	4	3	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	54	4.15	7
Resource mobilisation skills	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	3	3	3	3	5	2	51	3.92	12
Communication and negotiation skills	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	4	2	5	3	3	1	48	3.69	13
Managing change and innovation	1	4	3	4	3	3	5	3	3	4	3	3	3	42	3.23	14

Appendix 4.5e: Results of parents' group NGT interviews on competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership

Head-teachers' Competencies for effective school leadership	Participants												Total	Mean	Rank
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12			
Leadership	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	2	5	5	4	5	56	4.67	1
Financial management	3	5	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	54	4.50	2
School community relations	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	4	5	4	5	53	4.42	3
Human psychology	4	4	5	5	4	4	5	3	4	5	5	4	52	4.33	4
ICT	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	4	52	4.33	4
Interpersonal relations	3	5	5	5	5	3	4	5	3	5	5	3	51	4.25	6
Teaching/learning processes and strategies	5	5	5	5	3	4	5	3	4	4	5	3	51	4.25	6
Leadership ethics	5	4	5	4	5	3	4	3	5	4	4	5	51	4.25	6
Delegation	4	4	5	5	3	4	5	3	4	5	5	4	51	4.25	6
Education policy	3	5	5	4	3	2	5	5	5	4	5	4	50	4.17	10
Self management and awareness skills	3	5	5	4	3	4	4	5	3	4	5	5	50	4.17	10
Effective communication	4	4	5	3	4	5	3	5	4	4	4	5	50	4.17	10
Order and discipline	4	3	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	3	3	5	50	4.17	10
Record management	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	3	50	4.17	10
Decision making	4	5	5	5	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	50	4.17	10
Time management	5	5	5	5	4	3	3	3	3	5	5	4	50	4.17	10
Problem solving	4	5	5	3	2	5	5	1	3	4	5	4	46	3.83	17
Identifying and using talents of staff and students	2	5	5	4	1	2	4	5	4	4	4	4	44	3.67	18
Understanding the culture of the community	4	4	5	5	1	5	3	1	4	4	4	3	43	3.58	19
Conducting meetings	5	4	5	3	4	1	3	2	4	4	4	3	42	3.50	20

Appendix 4.5f: Stakeholder groups' perceptions of the most important competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership

NB: The numbers in brackets indicate the ranking position

S/n	Stakeholder groups				
	Senior officials	Head-teachers	Teachers	Students	Parents
1	Leadership skills (1)	Leadership skills (1)	Leadership skills (1)	Research skills (1)	Leadership skills (1)
2	Monitoring and evaluation of student progress (2)	Planning skills (2)	Decision making skills (2)	Leadership skills (2)	Financial management (2)
3	Organisational structure (3)	Teaching and learning processes (2)	Effective communication skills (3)	Teaching/ learning strategies (2)	School community relations (3)
4	Strategic Planning (4)	ICT skills (4)	Human and social psychology (4)	Interpersonal skills (2)	Human psychology (4)
5	Motivation skills (5)	Financial management skills (4)	Teaching and learning processes (5)	ICT skills (2)	ICT (4)
6	Research and analytical skills (6)	Assessment and evaluation (6)	ICT skills (5)	Environmental education (6)	Interpersonal relations (6)
7	Professionalism (6)	Guidance and counselling (7)	Interpersonal relationships (5)	Human psychology (7)	Teaching and learning strategies and processes (6)
8	Curriculum (8)	Motivation skills (8)	Income generation and resource mobilisation skills (8)	Monitoring and evaluation (7)	Leadership ethics (6)
9	Financial management (9)	Law (Legal knowledge) (9)	Financial management (8)	Guidance and counselling (7)	Delegation (6)
10	Interpersonal skills (9)	Statistical skills (9)	Morals and ethics of leadership (8)	Financial management (7)	Education policy (10)

11	Conflict resolution and negotiation skills **(11)**	Project write up skills **(9)**	Monitoring and evaluation **(11)**	Inclusive (special needs) education **(7)**	Self management and awareness skills **(10)**
12	Human and social psychology **(11)**	Staff development **(9)**	Guidance and counselling **(11)**		Effective communication **(10)**
13	Managing change **(11)**	Communication skills **(9)**	Teaching/ learning strategies (team teaching; teaching large classes; learner-centred methods, etc) **(11)**		Order and discipline **(10)**
14	Time management **(11)**	Decision making skills **(9)**	Strategic Planning **(11)**		Record management **(10)**
15	ICT and communication skills **(11)**		Statistical skills **(11)**		Decision making **(10)**
16					Time management **(10)**

Appendix 4.6a: Questionnaire survey results on the senior officials' perceptions of the competencies that secondary school head-teachers need to demonstrate effective school leadership (N = 56)

Code	Competencies	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean Value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
C28	Leadership	8	48 100%	0 0%	0 0%	3 6.3%	7 14.6%	38 79.2%	4.73	0.57	1
C34	Monitoring and evaluation	7	49 100%	1 2.0%	0 0%	2 4.1%	7 14.3%	39 79.6%	4.69	0.74	2
C18	Teaching/learning processes	7	49 100%	0 0%	2 4.1%	5 10.2%	7 14.3%	35 71.4%	4.53	0.84	3
C25	Education policy	7	49 100%	0 0%	2 4.1%	5 10.2%	12 24.5%	30 61.2%	4.43	0.84	4
C05	Strategic planning	5	51 100%	1 2.0%	2 3.9%	5 9.8%	11 21.6%	32 62.7%	4.39	0.96	5
C10	Staff appraisal and development	6	50 100%	1 2.0%	2 4.0%	5 10.0%	17 34.0%	25 50.0%	4.26	0.94	6
C30	Professionalism	10	46 100%	2 4.3	0 0%	2 4.3	22 47.8	20 43.5	4.26	0.90	7
C06	Time management	8	48 100%	2 4.2%	1 2.1%	4 8.3%	17 35.4%	24 50.0%	4.25	1.00	8
C07	Financial management	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	5 9.8%	18 35.3%	25 49.0%	4.24	0.99	9
C04	Communication	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	4 7.8%	20 39.2%	24 47.1%	4.24	0.97	10
C33	Order and discipline	8	48 100%	2 4.2%	0 0%	7 14.6%	15 31.3%	24 50.0%	4.23	0.99	11
C14	Decision making	8	48 100%	0 0%	3 6.3%	7 14.6%	14 29.2%	24 50.0%	4.23	0.93	12
C31	Delegation	8	48 100%	0 0%	2 4.2%	14.3 16.7%	30.4 35.4%	37.5 43.8%	4.19	0.87	13

C01	Curriculum	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	4 8.0%	4 8.0%	13 26.0%	27 54.0%	4.18	1.14	14
C24	Project formulation and write up	7	49 100%	1 2.0%	2 4.1%	5 10.2%	22 44.9%	19 38.8%	4.14	0.91	15
C13	Guidance and counselling	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	3 6.0%	5 10.0%	18 36.0%	22 44.0%	4.10	1.07	16
C15	Human and social psychology	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	0 0%	11 22.0%	15 30.0%	22 44.0%	4.10	1.01	17
C27	School community relations	8	48 100%	1 2.1%	2 4.2%	8 16.7%	17 35.4%	20 41.7%	4.10	0.97	18
C09	Motivation	6	50 100%	0 0%	2 4.0%	9 18.0%	19 38.0%	20 40.0%	4.10	0.97	19
C21	Record management	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	1 2.1%	8 17.0%	20 42.6%	17 36.2%	4.09	0.90	20
C19	Managing change	8	48 100%	0 0%	2 4.2%	10 20.8%	19 39.6%	17 35.4%	4.06	0.86	21
C02	Assessment	6	50 100%	3 6.0%	2 4.0%	8 16.0%	16 32.0%	21 42.0%	4.00	1.14	22
C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation	6	50 100%	3 6.0%	0 0%	11 22.0%	18 36.0%	18 36.0%	3.96	1.07	23
C35	Statistics	7	49 100%	5 10.2%	1 2.0%	8 16.3%	13 26.5%	22 44.9%	3.94	1.28	24
C26	Self-management	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	3 6.4%	13 27.7%	11 23.4%	19 40.4%	3.94	1.07	25
C29	Ethics	7	49 100%	2 4.1%	2 4.1%	11 22.4%	16 32.7%	18 36.7%	3.94	1.07	26
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)	8	48 100%	1 2.1%	3 6.3%	11 22.9%	16 33.3%	17 35.4%	3.94	1.02	27
C32	Organisational structure	9	47 100%	3 6.4%	2 4.3%	8 17.0%	17 36.2%	17 36.2%	3.91	1.14	28
C22	Inclusive education	7	49 100%	3 6.1%	3 6.1%	9 18.4%	15 30.6%	19 38.8%	3.90	1.18	29
C03	Interpersonal relations	7	49 100%	3 6.1%	2 4.1%	9 18.4%	21 42.9%	14 28.6%	3.84	1.09	30
C08	Conflict management	5	51 100%	2 3.9%	1 2.0%	16 31.4%	17 33.3%	15 29.4%	3.82	1.01	31

C12	Research and analytical skills	7	49 100%	1 2.0%	6 12.2%	9 18.4%	20 40.8%	13 26.5%	3.78	1.05	32
C20	Law (legal knowledge)	8	48 100%	3 6.3%	4 8.3%	13 27.1%	15 31.3%	13 27.1%	3.65	1.16	33
C23	Negotiation processes	7	49 100%	2 4.1%	3 6.1%	17 34.7%	17 34.7%	10 20.4%	3.61	1.02	34
C16	Environmental education	6	50 100%	3 6.0%	5 10.0%	13 26.0%	17 34.0%	12 24.0%	3.60	1.14	35

Appendix 4.6b: Questionnaire survey results on the secondary school head-teachers' perceptions of their competencies for demonstrating effective school leadership (N = 91)

Code	Competencies	Missing data	Valid data								
			N %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
C28	Leadership	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	1 1.1%	6 6.9%	11 12.6%	66 75.9%	4.56	0.94	1
C1	Curriculum	2	89 100%	1 1.1%	1 1.1%	7 7.9%	18 20.2%	62 69.7%	4.56	0.78	2
C18	Teaching/learning processes	7	84 100%	2 2.4%	0 0%	6 7.1%	20 23.8%	56 66.75	4.52	0.83	3
C34	Monitoring and evaluation	2	89 100%	1 1.1%	1 1.1%	9 10.1%	20 22.5%	58 65.2%	4.49	0.81	4
C05	Strategic planning	3	88 100%	1 1.1%	3 3.4%	7 8.0%	24 27.3%	53 60.2%	4.42	0.87	5
C07	Financial management	5	86 100%	2 2.3%	1 1.2%	11 12.8%	20 23.3%	52 60.5%	4.38	0.92	6
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	6 6.9%	11 12.6%	11 12.6%	58 66.7%	4.37	1.02	7
C14	Decision making	7	84 100%	1 1.2%	3 3.6%	6 7.1%	28 33.3%	46 54.8%	4.37	0.86	8
C13	Guidance and counselling	6	85 100%	1 1.2%	2 2.4%	9 10.6%	28 32.9%	45 52.9%	4.34	0.85	9
C33	Order and discipline	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	3 3.4%	9 10.3%	28 32.2%	46 52.9%	4.32	0.88	10
C04	Communication	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	1 1.1%	9 10.3%	27 31.0%	47 54.05	4.31	0.96	11
C35	Statistics	8	83 100%	2 2.4%	3 3.6%	6 7.2%	29 34.9%	43 51.8%	4.30	0.93	12
C24	Project formulation and write up	2	89 100%	4 4.5%	2 2.2%	10 11.2%	23 25.8%	50 56.2%	4.27	1.05	13

C27	School community relations	3	88 100%	2 2.3%	0 0%	14 15.9%	30 34.1%	42 47.7%	4.25	0.89	14
C25	Education policy	5	86 100%	3 3.5%	2 2.3%	10 11.6%	27 31.4%	44 51.2%	4.24	0.99	15
C09	Motivation	9	82 100%	0 0%	2 2.4%	15 18.3%	30 36.6%	35 42.7%	4.20	0.82	16
C06	Time management	5	86 100%	0 0%	9 10.5%	10 11.6%	23 26.7%	44 51.2%	4.19	1.01	17
C12	Research and analytical skills	2	89 100%	0 0%	7 7.9%	14 15.7%	24 27.0%	44 49.4%	4.18	0.97	18
C30	Professionalism	5	86 100%	4 4.7%	2 2.3%	15 17.4%	21 24.4%	44 51.2%	4.15	1.10	20
C03	Interpersonal relations	3	88 100%	1 1.1	5 5.7	17 19.3	24 27.3	41 46.6	4.13	0.99	19
C21	Record management	5	86 100%	4 4.7%	5 5.8%	11 12.8%	25 29.1%	41 47.7%	4.09	1.12	21
C31	Delegation	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	6 6.9%	14 16.1%	29 33.3%	37 42.55	4.09	0.98	22
C02	Assessment	5	86 100%	3 3.5%	2 2.3%	15 17.4%	31 36.0%	35 40.7%	4.08	1.00	23
C20	Law (legal knowledge)	4	87 100%	1 1.1%	8 9.2%	12 13.8%	30 34.5%	36 41.4%	4.06	1.02	24
C15	Human and social psychology	5	86 100%	3 3.5%	4 4.7%	18 20.9%	22 25.6%	39 45.3%	4.05	1.08	25
C10	Staff appraisal and development	4	87 100%	2 2.3%	5 5.7%	12 13.8%	39 44.8%	29 33.3%	4.01	0.96	26
C29	Ethics	5	86 100%	4 4.7%	6 7.0%	15 17.4%	26 30.2%	35 40.7%	3.95	1.14	27
C22	Inclusive education	6	85 100%	4 4.7%	3 3.5%	19 22.4%	26 30.6%	33 38.8%	3.95	1.09	28
C08	Conflict management	7	84 100%	3 3.6%	5 6.0%	21 25.0%	22 26.2%	33 39.3%	3.92	1.10	29
C26	Self-management	6	85	2 2.4%	10 11.8%	14 16.5%	29 34.1%	30 35.3%	3.88	1.10	30
C32	Organisational structure	4	87 100%	6 6.9%	4 4.6%	15 17.2%	35 40.2%	27 31.0%	3.84	1.13	31

C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation	4	87 100%	3 3.4%	6 6.9%	23 26.4%	27 31.0%	28 32.2%	3.82	1.07	**32**
C19	Managing change	6	85 100%	8 9.4%	6 7.1%	16 18.8%	22 25.9%	33 38.8%	3.78	1.29	**33**
C16	Environmental education	2	89 100%	3 3.4%	9 10.1%	22 24.7%	27 30.3%	28 31.5%	3.76	1.11	**34**
C23	Negotiation processes	6	85 100%	7 8.2%	8 9.4%	22 25.9%	26 30.6%	22 25.9%	3.56	1.21	**35**

Appendix 4.7a: Questionnaire survey results on the senior officials' perceptions of the training priorities of secondary school head-teachers (N = 56)

Code	Competencies	Missing data	Valid data								
			50 %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean Value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
C34	Monitoring and evaluation	8	48 100%	0 0%	0 0%	3 6.3%	5 10.4%	40 83.3%	4.77	0.55	1
C28	Leadership	8	48 100%	0 0%	0 0%	3 6.3%	7 14.6%	38 79.2%	4.73	0.57	2
C18	Teaching/learning processes	9	47 100%	0 0%	0 0%	7 14.9%	8 17.0%	32 68.1%	4.53	0.75	3
C05	Strategic planning	7	49 100%	3 6.1%	1 2.0%	4 8.2%	8 16.3%	33 67.35	4.37	1.13	4
C07	Financial management	6	50 100%	2 4.0%	0 0%	8 16.0%	11 22.0%	29 58.0%	4.30	1.01	5
C25	Education policy	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	4 8.5%	5 10.6%	8 17.0%	29 61.7%	4.28	1.10	6
C30	Professionalism	10	46 100%	1 2.2%	3 6.5%	4 8.7%	17 37.0%	21 45.7%	4.17	1.00	7
C13	Guidance and counselling	8	48 100%	1 2.1%	2 4.2%	6 12.5%	18 37.5%	21 43.85	4.17	0.95	8
C24	Project formulation and write up	7	49 100%	1 2.0%	4 8.2%	5 10.2%	16 32.7%	23 46.95	4.14	1.04	9
C14	Decision making	10	46 100%	1 2.2%	3 6.5%	8 17.4%	13 28.3%	21 45.7%	4.09	1.05	10
C19	Managing change	8	48 100%	0 0%	6 12.5%	5 10.4%	17 35.4%	20 41.7%	4.06	1.02	11
C06	Time management	12	44 100	3 6.8%	3 6.8%	2 4.5%	17 38.6%	19 43.2%	4.05	1.18	12
C01	Curriculum	11	45 100%	3 6.7%	5 11.1%	4 8.9%	8 17.8%	25 55.6%	4.04	1.31	13

C31	Delegation	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	4 8.5%	6 12.8%	17 36.2%	19 40.4%	4.04	1.04	14
C09	Motivation	8	48 100%	4 8.3	2 4.2	5 10.4	18 37.5	19 39.6	3.96	1.20	15
C35	Statistics	9	47 100%	6 12.8%	2 4.3%	4 8.5%	12 25.5%	23 48.9%	3.94	1.39	16
C33	Order and discipline	9	47 100%	2 4.3%	4 8.5%	9 19.1%	12 25.5%	20 42.6%	3.94	1.17	17
C15	Human and social psychology	8	48 100%	2 4.2%	1 2.1%	13 27.1%	14 29.2%	18 37.5%	3.94	1.06	18
C21	Record management	10	46 100%	1 2.2%	2 4.3%	12 26.1%	15 32.6%	16 34.8%	3.93	1.00	19
C22	Inclusive education	8	48 100%	2 4.2	4 8.3	10 20.8	12 25.0	20 41.7	3.92	1.16	20
C10	Staff appraisal and development	10	46 100%	1 2.2%	5 10.9%	9 19.6%	13 28.3%	18 39.1%	3.91	1.11	21
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)	8	48 100%	3 6.3%	2 4.2%	11 22.9%	14 29.2%	18 37.5%	3.88	1.16	22
C03	Interpersonal relations	11	45 100%	4 8.9%	0 0%	10 22.2%	17 37.8%	14 31.1%	3.82	1.15	24
C27	School community relations	8	48 100%	3 6.3%	4 8.3%	10 20.8%	13 27.1%	18 37.5%	3.81	1.21	23
C08	Conflict management	9	47 100%	4 8.5%	2 4.3%	11 23.4%	14 29.8%	16 34.0%	3.77	1.22	25
C02	Assessment	9	47 100%	3 6.4%	2 4.3%	13 27.7%	14 29.8%	15 31.9%	3.77	1.15	26
C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation	9	47 100%	2 4.3%	7 14.9%	10 21.3%	10 21.3%	18 38.3%	3.74	1.24	27
C04	Communication	9	47 100%	3 6.4%	5 10.6%	9 19.1%	14 29.8%	16 34.0%	3.74	1.22	28
C12	Research and analytical skills	10	46 100%	2 4.3%	4 8.7%	13 28.3%	12 26.1%	15 32.6%	3.74	1.14	29
C29	Ethics	9	47 100%	2 4.3%	6 12.8%	8 17.0%	17 36.2%	14 29.8%	3.74	1.15	30
C32	Organisational structure	9	47 100%	3 6.4%	2 4.3%	13 27.7%	16 34.0%	13 27.7%	3.72	1.12	31

C26	Self-management	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	6 12.8%	12 25.5%	15 31.9%	13 27.7%	3.70	1.08	32
C23	Negotiation processes	9	47 100%	1 2.1%	5 10.6%	15 31.9%	16 34.0%	10 21.3%	3.62	1.01	33
C20	Law (legal knowledge)	10	46 100%	3 6.5%	5 10.9%	13 28.3%	12 26.1%	13 28.3%	3.59	1.20	34
C16	Environmental education	9	47 100%	4 8.5%	6 12.8%	16 34.0%	11 23.4%	10 21.3%	3.36	1.21	35

Appendix 4.7b: Questionnaire survey results on the secondary school head-teachers' perceptions of their training priorities (N = 91)

Code	Competencies	Missing data	Valid data								
			n %	Frequencies and percentages					Mean Value	Standard deviation	Rank
				1	2	3	4	5			
C24	Project formulation and write up	7	84 100%	6 7.1%	5 6.0%	3 3.6%	16 19.0%	54 64.3%	4.27	1.23	1
C11	Information and communication technology (ICT)	10	81 100%	6 7.4%	3 3.7%	7 8.6%	16 19.8%	49 60.5%	4.22	1.21	2
C35	Statistics	11	80 100%	2 2.5%	4 5.0%	12 15.0%	20 25.0%	42 52.5%	4.20	1.04	3
C22	Inclusive education	8	83 100%	4 4.8%	6 7.2%	8 9.6%	23 27.7%	42 50.6%	4.12	1.15	4
C12	Research and analytical skills	8	83 100%	3 3.6%	5 6.0%	13 15.7%	20 24.1%	42 50.6%	4.12	1.11	5
C20	Law (legal knowledge)	8	83 100%	4 4.8%	6 7.2%	14 16.9%	18 21.7%	41 49.4%	4.04	1.18	6
C13	Guidance and counselling	11	80 100%	3 3.8%	7 8.8%	13 16.3%	20 25.0%	37 46.3%	4.01	1.15	7
C01	Curriculum	9	82 100%	2 2.4%	8 9.8%	13 15.9%	23 28.0%	36 43.9%	4.01	1.10	8
C34	Monitoring and evaluation	6	85 100%	6 7.1%	7 8.2%	12 14.1%	17 20.0%	43 50.6%	3.99	1.28	9
C05	Strategic planning	7	84 100%	3 3.6%	10 11.9%	12 14.3%	23 27.4%	36 42.9%	3.94	1.18	10
C07	Financial management	8	83 100%	9 10.8%	9 10.8%	8 9.6%	15 18.1%	42 50.6%	3.87	1.42	11
C25	Education policy	8	83 100%	5 6.0%	10 12.0%	11 13.3%	23 27.7%	34 41.0%	3.86	1.25	12
C28	Leadership	7	84 100%	9 10.7%	11 13.1%	7 8.3%	14 16.7%	43 51.2%	3.85	1.44	13
C30	Professionalism	8	83 100%	6 7.2%	8 9.6%	16 19.3%	18 21.7%	35 42.2%	3.82	1.28	14

C15	Human and social psychology	8	83 100%	4 4.8%	10 12.0%	15 18.1%	26 31.3%	28 33.7%	3.77	1.18	15
C14	Decision making	9	82 100%	6 7.3%	9 11.0%	20 24.4%	20 24.4%	27 32.9%	3.65	1.25	16
C18	Teaching/learning processes	12	79 100%	8 10.1%	10 12.7%	13 16.5%	20 25.3%	28 35.4%	3.63	1.35	17
C10	Staff appraisal and development	8	83 100%	5 6.0%	12 14.5%	17 20.5%	25 30.1%	24 28.9%	3.61	1.22	18
C04	Communication	9	82 100%	5 6.1%	13 15.9%	17 20.7%	23 28.0%	24 29.3%	3.59	1.24	19
C16	Environmental education	7	84 100%	6 7.1%	11 13.1%	21 25.0%	20 23.8%	26 31.0%	3.58	1.25	20
C32	Organisational structure	10	81 100%	8 8.8%	12 13.2%	12 13.2%	25 27.5%	24 26.4%	3.56	1.32	21
C17	Income generation and resource mobilisation	7	84 100%	8 9.5%	13 15.5%	15 17.9%	23 27.4%	25 29.8%	3.52	1.32	22
C23	Negotiation processes	9	82 100%	10 12.2%	8 9.8%	20 24.4%	20 24.4%	24 29.3%	3.49	1.34	23
C09	Motivation	9	82 100%	6 7.3%	14 17.1%	17 20.7%	26 31.7%	19 23.2%	3.46	1.23	24
C03	Interpersonal relations	6	85 100%	8 9.4%	11 12.9%	24 28.2%	20 23.5%	22 25.9%	3.44	1.27	25
C21	Record management	11	80 100%	9 11.3%	10 12.5%	15 18.8%	30 37.5%	16 20.0%	3.44	1.28	27
C33	Order and discipline	7	84 100%	8 9.5%	17 20.2%	16 19.0%	18 21.4%	25 29.8%	3.42	1.35	26
C31	Delegation	7	84 100%	11 13.1%	10 11.9%	22 26.2%	16 19.0%	25 29.8%	3.40	1.37	28
C29	Ethics	9	82 100%	8 9.8%	18 22.0%	11 13.4%	23 28.0%	22 26.8%	3.40	1.35	29
C27	School community relations	5	86 100%	11 12.8%	11 12.8%	19 22.1%	24 27.9%	21 24.4%	3.38	1.33	30
C02	Assessment	12	79 100%	8 10.1	9 11.4	22 27.8	25 31.6	15 19.0	3.38	1.21	31
C05	Time management	10	81 100%	6 7.4%	19 23.5%	14 17.3%	24 29.6%	18 22.2%	3.36	1.27	32

C19	Managing change	8	83 100%	9 10.8%	14 16.9%	18 21.7%	23 27.7%	19 22.9%	3.35	1.30	33
C08	Conflict management	10	81 100%	11 13.6%	13 16.0%	18 22.2%	18 22.2%	21 25.9%	3.31	1.37	34
C26	Self-management	9	82 100%	10 12.2%	12 14.6%	17 20.7%	30 36.6%	13 15.9%	3.29	1.25	35